
FRENCH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

TEACHER RESOURCE MANUAL

EARLY CHILDHOOD SERVICES – GRADE 12

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Preface

The purpose of this document is to provide teachers with a reference that addresses specific aspects of the program of studies. As such, the ideas and suggested methodology proposed in the document are not intended to be prescriptive; rather, the document has been written in such a way as to attempt to meet the varying referential needs of the field. In this sense, **teachers are encouraged to use the document as a reference resource, which need not necessarily be read from cover to cover but rather referred to as specific professional queries and instructional needs arise.**

Introduction

The aim of the program of studies for French as a second language is to encourage the learning of French as a means of communication and as an integral part of students' general education. This orientation in which French is not only the subject, but also the medium of instruction, promotes a multidimensional approach composed of four components: experience/communication, culture, language and general language education. This approach has evolved from and retains many of the strengths of traditional approaches in second language teaching, i.e., analytical approaches, most of which are inclined towards the analysis of the language under study. At the same time, it incorporates the experiential aspect of language learning, i.e., non-analytical approaches in which ideas are freely communicated without an in-depth analysis of the language.

The **Teacher Resource Manual (T.R.M.)** outlines the main features of the program, presents the pedagogical principles behind its philosophy and proposes a methodology aimed at facilitating the task of planning. While all ideas in this manual are consistent with the philosophy of the program of studies, they are, however, intended only as suggestions, which may be adapted to suit the varying needs of students and teachers. The program has sufficient breadth and flexibility that allows and encourages teachers to provide enrichment or remediation experiences to individual learners as required.

Evolution of Second Language Teaching

The purpose of this section is to give teachers an overview of the evolution of second language teaching as a means of understanding and situating the current philosophy of the French as a second language program. This section highlights the strengths and weaknesses of the most common methods in second language teaching/learning and provides a framework that allows us to look back, reflect and understand why a change in second language teaching practices is being proposed. This change is intended to be part of an evolutionary process as opposed to a rejection of our past or a final statement on language teaching practices per se. In this regard, we shall explore briefly some of the key representative methods, which are summarized in graph form at the end of this section.

Although second language teaching/learning historically has been a part of human cultural development, it is only in the past century and a half that it has been documented as a formal curricular field of study (e.g., Jespersen, Gouin, Viëtor). Moreover, its actual historical, theoretical and scientific bases have been articulated, mainly, in the twentieth century, with contributions from such diverse fields as linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropology, ethnography, historiography of language teaching and the like. These points demonstrate the longevity of second language teaching/learning, but its relatively short documented history. In addition, they imply the influence exerted by numerous fields on second language teaching/learning and provide some explanation as to how it has evolved into a complex, multidimensional field in its own right.

In the early nineteenth century, the learning of “modern” languages was considered primarily as mental exercise for the development of one’s intellectual faculties. Latin and Greek, the classic examples of languages studied for this purpose, were learned solely as a means of understanding literary works better. The **grammar-translation approach**, as it was called, advocated language learning exclusively through the acquisition of grammatical structures and the rote memorization of vocabulary lists for translation purposes. Its aim was to develop the skill of transferring knowledge from one language to another, not for practical language use. Consequently, students were unable to understand or produce the second language orally, but usually were able to read the language above all and to write with a certain degree of fluency.

At the end of the nineteenth century, Berlitz and Jespersen, among others, tried another approach, called the **direct method**, whereby students learned a second language in much the same way as they had acquired their first language. The focus was a bombardment of oral language in the beginning and the development of speaking the target language through the act of speaking. The greatest drawback of this approach was that grammatical rules were learned

inductively, some incorrectly, resulting in habitual usage which caused many of the linguistic structures to become rooted incorrectly in learners' minds (termed fossilization: see Selinker, 1972). This led students to speak the language with a number of errors that could not be rectified effectively. Nevertheless, this approach did contribute to our understanding of the teaching/learning of a second language by demonstrating that a certain degree of aural/oral fluency was attainable.

An important change in second language teaching/learning came about with the outbreak of World War II. The warring nations needed a significant number of people who could speak not only the languages of their enemies but also those of their allies. The situation required the development of a new teaching method that could rapidly train "native-like" speakers of these languages. Thus, the U.S. Department of Defense funded the development of an approach to meet this need. The new approach, called the **audiolingual approach**, was based on the philosophy of the behaviourists (stimulus-response method) and of the structuralists to whom language learning meant the acquisition and formation of habits vis-à-vis a taxonomy of grammatical structures. According to this theory, language is learned through the repetition, memorization and reinforcement of rigidly taught grammar rules, with the ultimate goal being the mastery of exact pronunciation. In addition, this approach emphasized careful monitoring of oral skill development (aural comprehension and oral production). Unfortunately, in the classroom setting this approach was not as successful in creating bilingual speakers as had been predicted, since the approach had not taken into account differences in learning styles. Further, second language teachers, feeling constrained, rightly or wrongly, by the suggested methodology, were unable to assist second language learners in developing their language competence beyond a parrot-like rote recall of vocabulary and structures. This resulted in students becoming bored in class and being unable to function meaningfully in the target language. However, in spite of these two weaknesses, Stern (1983) considered that the audiolingual approach contributed to the further development of second language methodology.

In 1950, France's Centre de recherche et d'études pour la diffusion du français (CREDIF) adapted the audiolingual approach by creating the **audiovisual approach** to provide immigrants with the necessary tools to survive in a francophone environment. Using a filmstrip, accompanied by an audiotape, this approach provided an utterance which corresponded to each frame. These utterances were further developed in other procedures employed in this approach. The CREDIF was very successful with the approach in France, perhaps due to immediacy of learner needs and cultural relevance, but the same could not be said of its application in classroom settings in North America. Once again, students were bored by the constant repetition of utterances and teacher's control of oral production. The need for an evolving approach became evident once again.

In 1960, with developmental psychology beginning to have an impact in the area of language learning, cognitivists created the **cognitive approach**. The aim of this approach was to introduce new structures through schematas which had already been acquired by the students. Advocates of this approach, partially in reaction to the habit-forming principles underlying the audiolingual/audiovisual methods, believed that knowing grammar rules enables one to learn to use the second language better. The problem, however, was that teachers tended to indulge in lengthy grammatical explanations, which impeded both learner participation and language acquisition. In spite of its limitations, this approach did provide students with the opportunity to be more creative with the language.

In the seventies, it became even more apparent that second language students were unable to express themselves well. They were quite capable of imitating and memorizing the language, but could not use it in context. The Council of Europe took on the challenge to find another means of teaching/learning a second language. The result was the **functional-notional approach**, based on language use according to six categories of language functions: 1) judgment and evaluation, 2) suasion, 3) argument, 4) rational inquiry and exposition, 5) personal emotions and 6) emotional relations (Omaggio, 1986, p. 213). The aim of this approach was to transfer these functions to acts of communication. In reality, however, the approach limited language use, since learners were unable to transfer their acquired knowledge to other contexts successfully. In addition, it was discovered that the selection and sequencing of functions and notions were problematic for curriculum design and implementation. Out of experience acquired in this period evolved the concept of communicative competence.

Through experimenting with these different approaches, it became increasingly clear that learners were capable of memorizing grammatical structures and rules and applying them in class, without, however, being able to communicate their own needs. This inability to apply one's knowledge of language to its use at a personal level led to the development of the **communicative approach**, which espouses personally relevant language use in context. Hymes (1971) coined the term **communicative competence** and Savignon (1972) attempted to use the term as a point of departure for defining an approach that was communicatively based. In her subsequent 1983 definition, Savignon described the concept as the negotiation of the meaning of messages between a speaker and a listener in interaction. Canale and Swain (1980, 1983) added four further concepts to complete the definition: 1) **grammatical competence**, or knowledge about the linguistic code and the rules of the language, 2) **sociolinguistic competence**, or the ability to use correctly the appropriate grammatical structures in context, 3) **discourse competence**, or the ability to combine ideas cohesively and coherently and 4) **strategic competence**, or the use of coping strategies to maintain/sustain communication. This approach involved students in a rich, socially interactive environment; however, in most

cases, while context was provided, it tended to be contrived and inadequately embedded in the students' actual lived experiences.

Indeed, it is this last point in which the seed from the present program of studies has grown. The addition of the experiential component implies that language teaching/learning places learners in interaction with their environment (physical, social and/or psychological); i.e., language is learned through communicating and through participating in language experiences which are as authentic as possible for the learner. In order to meet this challenge, a multidimensional curriculum (Stern, 1983) which constitutes language learning through both analytical and non-analytical means is used. The question which comes to mind at this point is: "What is a multidimensional curriculum?" A description of such a curriculum follows.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF THE MOST COMMON METHODS
IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING*

Conceptual Basis of Second Language Development	Promoted Language Behaviour	Teaching Method
1. Language as a structural taxonomy	Stimulus-Response	• Grammar-Translation Approach • Audiolingual Approach - drills - reinforcement - correct pronunciation • Audiovisual Approach
2. Language as grammatical competence (code)	Ideal linguistic competence of a speaker/listener (knowing the rules)	• Cognitive Approach
3. Language as meaning	Register and discourse = beginning of communicative competence (functions/notions)	• Functional/Notional Approach
4. Language as social interaction	Communicating in defined contexts	• Communicative Approach
5. Language as the individual interacting with the environment	Learning to communicate by interacting in a physical, social or psychological environment	• Experiential/Communicative Approach non-analytical analytical

*Adapted from Titone, 1984.

Main Features of a Multidimensional Curriculum

The main features of a multidimensional curriculum are the components and their accompanying aspects that determine the content, the learning sequence and the learner expectations to be achieved.

Components and Their Accompanying Aspects and Processes

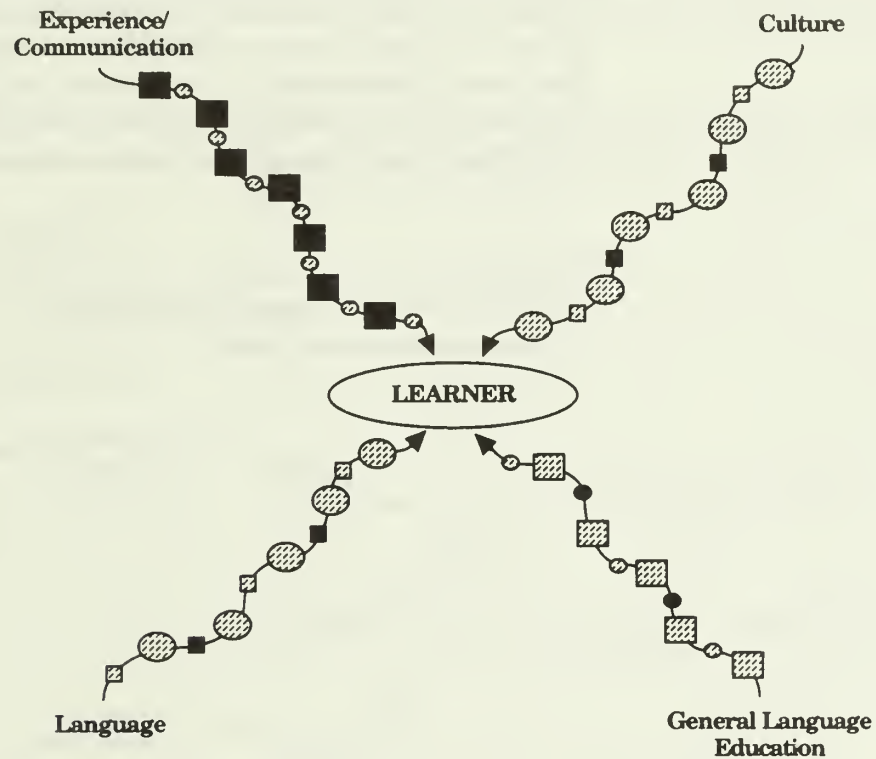
This French as a second language program reflects a multidimensional curriculum that allows for the teaching/learning process to cover both analytical and non-analytical linguistic processes of the language within the context of the knowledge and skills aspects. Four components (experience/communication, culture, language and general language education) have been integrated into the program of studies to respect the complexity of language learning.

These four components work as a unit, interacting with skills and knowledge and analytical and non-analytical processes, each making an important contribution to language teaching/learning. Figure 1 demonstrates this dynamic process in which no single component works in isolation; rather, each component contributes to learning in an integrated fashion by meeting at a central point – the learner. In other words, at any given point in the teaching/learning process, there is an interaction centred around one or more components in which skills and/or knowledge and analytical and/or non-analytical aspects are the focus.

Although the diagram shows which of the aspects or processes – 1) knowledge, 2) skills, 3) analytical and 4) non-analytical – are emphasized in each component of the program of studies, this does not mean that any one aspect or process is absent from any component. All aspects and processes are important, although not to the same degree. For example, in the experience/communication component, the main focus is on the non-analytical process and skills aspect. In this respect, at the classroom level in a communicative situation, the non-analytical process occurs when the communicative act is not interrupted unless an error completely blocks the comprehension of the communicative intent. At this point, meaning must be negotiated until the message is understood. If the error persists, however, it must be examined analytically so that it may be identified and corrected. This example demonstrates how an aspect and a process can complement each other.

For the skills aspect in the experience/communication component, the experiential approach, composed of experiences previously acquired in the first language or even new experiences not related to the first language, encourages the use of the four language skills (aural comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and written expression) in situations where the learner has generally acquired some background knowledge. It is this linguistic, discursive,

FIGURE 1
EMPHASES IN THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES
OF COMPONENTS, ASPECTS AND PROCESSES



Emphasis is denoted by largeness and number of symbols.

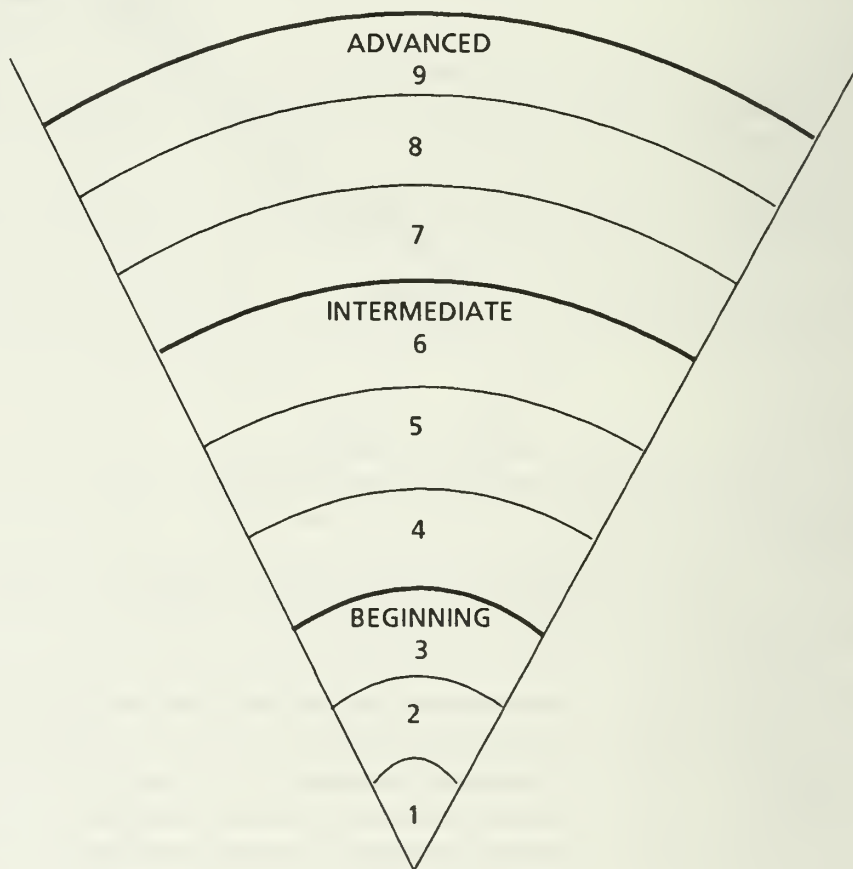
sociolinguistic and strategic knowledge that is used in communicative situations to understand or successfully convey a communicative intent. In this regard, skills cannot be used without knowledge. As in the previous example, the process and aspect play an important role as part of the component. In fact, all processes and aspects are clearly present in each component, with their emphasis depending on the circumstances. In order, then, to assure the fullest development of these aspects and processes, the program of studies has emphasized certain aspects and processes within a given component.

In the final analysis, the goal of a multidimensional curriculum is to meet the learning expectations defined in the program of studies by integrating the four components and their accompanying aspects and processes in a logical and progressive teaching/learning sequence.

Learning Sequence

With respect to the sequence of language learning, a system respecting the grade/time concept (e.g., Grade 4 French = X hours, French 10 = 125 hours = 5 credits) is being put aside in favour of one which recognizes the progressive growth of students' language proficiency. The program introduces three levels: **Beginning**, **Intermediate** and **Advanced**, with each level being subdivided into three sublevels: **Beginning 1, 2, 3**, **Intermediate 4, 5, 6** and **Advanced 7, 8, 9**. Figure 2 shows the progression of communicative growth through the various levels and sublevels.

FIGURE 2
SUMMARY OF THE LEVELS AND SUBLEVELS
IN THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES



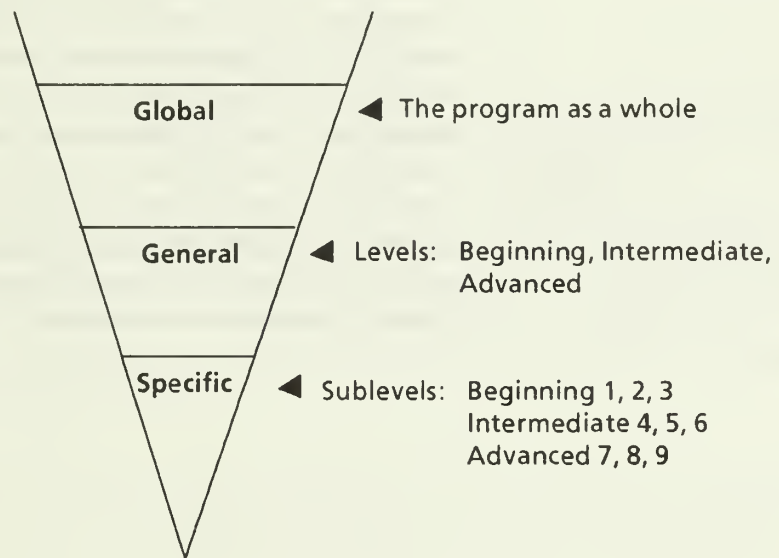
The interpretation of how these levels may be implemented within the school system for programs beginning at the elementary, junior high or senior high school division is described further in other documents developed by Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

Learner Expectations

The goal of the program is the learning of French as a means of communication and as an integral part of students' general education. In order to achieve this goal, three categories of learning expectations have been developed: global, general and specific.

Figure 3 shows how the three sets of learner expectations are subsumed one under the other. An explanation of these learner expectations follows.

FIGURE 3
ORGANIZATION OF FRENCH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
LEARNER EXPECTATIONS



The **global** learner expectations reflect the knowledge, skills and attitudes targeted for the program as a whole and are based on the four components of a multidimensional curriculum as shown below.

Based on their life experiences, learners will be able to:

Experience/

Communication

Culture

- participate in various language experiences that will enable them to:
- express, in French, their experiences, ideas and feelings, and understand those of other learners while interacting with interlocutors in various situations;
- seek information on and understand different aspects of francophone cultures in Canada and elsewhere with a view to broadening their awareness of such cultures and more effectively interpreting them;

Language

- understand and use the linguistic code, which encompasses the sound-symbol system, vocabulary, grammar and discourse features, to fulfill their communicative intents in various situations;

**General Language
Education**

- be aware of the nature of learning and its role in individual cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive development.

The **general** learner expectations describe the learner expectations at the end of each level (i.e., **Beginning**, **Intermediate** and **Advanced**) and specify the extent to which the learner achieves the global expectations in the four components.

The **specific** learner expectations describe the achievement that must be demonstrated by learners at the end of each sublevel in the four program components. The three sublevels describe the development of skills and knowledge in such a way that the levels are reached progressively. The entire teaching/learning process must ensure the development, refinement and continual recycling of knowledge and skills, both concrete and abstract, as students move towards attainment of the global learner expectations.

Alberta Education used the results of the National Core French Study as an important reference in designing Alberta's version of an integrated multidimensional curriculum. The following section will elaborate on each of the four components in more detail.

Components of the Program of Studies

The purpose of this section is to give teachers a fairly detailed description of each of the components in order to assist them in understanding the role these components play within a multidimensional program of studies. Although each component will be described individually, it should be remembered that they form an integrated whole and are to be treated accordingly. When a lesson or project is being planned, an activity may focus on one or two components or even on all the components at once. The following explanations, then, are intended to assist teachers in the planning of language teaching strategies/learning activities so that they can be situated with greater ease relative to their appropriate components.

Experience/Communication

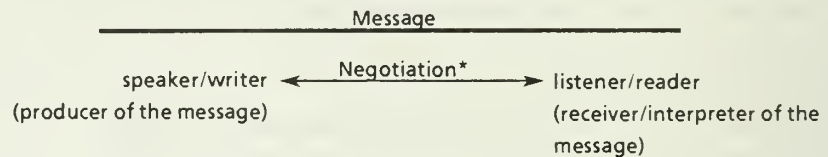
This component describes and focuses on the non-analytical aspect of language. This non-analytical aspect implies that one learns a language by communicating; that is, one concentrates mainly on the message and less on form. In other words, in a communicative situation, every attempt should be made not to interrupt the communicative act unless its message is expressed so imprecisely that it cannot be understood. Indeed, it is by experimenting (i.e., trial and error) that one learns to understand and express oneself in a language. One learns to do by doing.

The source of the teaching/learning process is found in the fields of experience which orient the entire process and will determine the development of language planning/learning. In addition, they represent the kinds of experiences that learners have generally already had in their lives. Furthermore, the fields of experience can enhance previous experiences in the first language or perhaps even provide new ones. The fields of experience prescribed in the program of studies, along with others that teachers may choose to employ in the classroom, start with simple concrete experiences. Depending on the learners' cognitive level, they move progressively towards more complex and abstract experiences, with the knowledge acquired previously in the concrete fields of experience being recycled constantly. Thus, the goal of the program is active participation in a language experience that begins with learners' personal experiences and leads them to discover the language and its use.

In this program, the term "communication" is used to describe a dynamic process in which the message is at the centre of an interaction that leads a speaker/writer (who produces the message) and a listener/reader (who receives and interprets the message) to negotiate its meaning. The communicative intents, or the use of language to request information, persuade, complain, express fear, etc., determine the dynamics of the message. The meaning of the message and not its form is primordial to communication.

Naturally, in this context, students will make linguistic errors which ordinarily need not be "corrected" by traditional or analytical means. The teacher can help the students remedy the problem by repeating or paraphrasing the message or by asking questions to have them clarify or confirm their communicative intent. This process implies the negotiation and adjustment of meaning for all communicative situations whereby it becomes a dynamic interaction with speaker/writer and listener/reader playing very important and active roles. Figure 4 illustrates the dynamics of this process.

FIGURE 4
THE COMMUNICATIVE DYNAMIC



**This interaction produces an exchange of roles whereby the one expressing the message becomes the receiver/interpreter and vice versa, shifting back and forth in the negotiation process.*

Thus, there are two ways to interact with a message: 1) comprehension or 2) production. Comprehension refers to the process by which one derives the significance of a simple or complex message from a spoken or written text. In a communicative act, this process supplies the essential points of the message which makes it possible to act or react within a defined context. Production may take the form of interactive/noninteractive, prepared/spontaneous or initiated/reactive speech or written discourse.

Interactive communication implies an exchange of messages between two or more persons. This type of communication is often found in such texts as telephone conversations, debates and interviews.

Noninteractive communication describes a situation in which a person expresses a communicative intent without expecting a reaction from someone else. This kind of communication is often referred to as one-way, although an active interpretation on the part of the receiver of the message may well be going on. Texts such as news broadcasts, radio and television announcements, recipes, short stories and poems are examples of noninteractive communication.

Prepared communication indicates that individuals have had time to plan their productions. This preparation may take the form of reflection prior to an oral production, written notes that were jotted down prior to the production in order to organize thoughts or it may be represented in previously written drafts that existed before the final written work is presented.

Spontaneous communication means a person produces a message without having had the time to prepare. This kind of communication is often represented in oral speech and is typified by false starts, pauses, hesitations, rephrasing of a message and linguistic errors. Gestures and other paralinguistic features also accompany this type of communication. In writing, it may take the form of a brief note or friendly letter where incomplete thoughts or errors are not corrected and generally do not impede communication in any way.

Initiated communication signifies that a person begins the communication and expects someone else to react. In so doing, this initiation process should respect the courtesies of the sociolinguistic patterns that are inherent in verbal and written exchanges, such as joining an ongoing conversation or writing a business letter, which maintain certain cultural formats.

Reactive communication means that a person responds to a communication initiated by someone else, either verbally and/or non-verbally, in keeping with the context. For example, the simple salutation “Hi! How are you?” can be stated in a number of ways depending on previous circumstances, the participants and their relationship, the context and so on. In this way, even though the same linguistic formula is being used, the elements mentioned above will influence the manner in which an individual will react, thereby creating a variety of possible reactions.

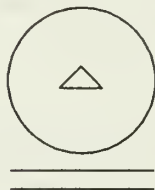
The following example will help illustrate some of these points.

To demonstrate the concept of interactive/noninteractive communication, the following situation, which occurred in a French Immersion classroom, will be used. (You may wish to try this activity with your students.) Prior to beginning the activity, the teacher told his students to follow his explicit instructions (prepared communication). He further instructed them not to ask any questions (noninteractive communication). These were the instructions he gave his students:

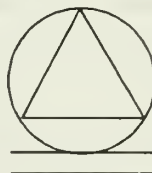
“Take out a piece of paper. In the centre of the page, draw a circle. Below the circle draw a line the same width as the circle. Now draw another line parallel to the line you just drew. In the circle, draw a triangle.”

Here are a few examples of the kinds of drawings this teacher received based on what he believed were explicit instructions:

Example 1:



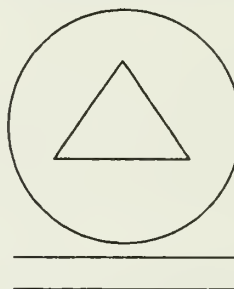
Example 2:



Example 3:



The actual design the teacher intended follows:



These variations demonstrate how the lack of an overt negotiation process, typical of noninteractive communication, can cause a number of interpretations. He decided to try the activity a second time, only this time he allowed the students to ask questions and he invited them to clarify his instructions. The results he obtained were the ones he had anticipated he would receive the first time around; i.e., this time there were very few, if any, variations in the drawings. This example demonstrates clearly the results of an overt negotiation process, which is one of the main features of interactive communication. However, the process of negotiation does occur no matter what type of communication, since this process entails the derivation of meaning from a message. The difference lies in whether there is an overt and direct interchange of messages (interactive communication) or not (noninteractive communication).

Therefore, no matter what type of communicative process is being used, learners must use their linguistic, sociolinguistic, and cultural knowledge and skills/strategies to create or develop a message appropriate to the context, taking into account the participants, topic, purpose and intent of the communication. This production, in context, may be as simple as a word, gesture or commonly used sentence, or as complex as a long series of cohesive sentences in discourse.

From a teaching perspective, in order to create effective communicators in French, this process should be developed gradually. Therefore, it is recommended that the receptive skills (aural and reading comprehension) be developed before the productive skills (oral production and written expression). Further, the communicative activities chosen for the classroom are to reflect authentic situations which represent reality as much as possible.

This description gives an idea of the complexity of the communicative process and how it is predominantly non-analytical in nature. As well, it is predominantly the language experience gained by the learners while conveying their communicative intents that is of primary importance in this concept.

Culture

In the current program, culture refers to the ideas, behaviours, manifestations and cultural artifacts that Francophones, as a whole or in subgroups, share collectively. It includes, for example, identity; language, with its regional and international variations and its often embedded and collectively shared assumptions, values and world views; cultural facts; history; the non-verbal communication system and everyday activities. The aim of the program is to have learners become more sensitive to, and understanding of, francophone cultures by having them examine the contemporary situation of such cultures. In keeping with this goal, the target culture must be presented as being alive and dynamic, with an emphasis on the contemporary, avoiding at all cost the teaching of stereotypes or the depiction of the target culture in strictly folkloric terms.

In this regard, the various cultural celebrations of francophone peoples are well known and it is a good idea to identify and discuss them. However, what is required is a deeper study of the reasons for these celebrations, i.e., to understand better their place in francophone cultures and how they compare with similar celebrations in the life experiences of the language learners. Consequently, special care must be taken when presenting cultural material. For example, when explaining the fact that many people of Quebec celebrate a Christmas custom called “le Réveillon”, it is not enough to make the statement only. Rather, to avoid simplistic or generalizing interpretation about all Quebecers, it will be important to note that this is a Christian celebration, in a Catholic tradition, in a wintry environment, but that not all Quebecers, today, are of the same background. Consequently, the typical “Réveillon”, with its rich tourtières, game, food and late night revelry after the midnight Mass, is a tradition carried on by some, adapted by others and, for some, in contemporary pluralistic Quebec, not a celebration at all. Further, students will see that they have similar or different ways of celebrating Christmas or other holidays in Alberta. In this way, cultural facts are learned in a context and relativized and they are not learned simply for the sake of acquiring some interesting

tidbits of information. It should be noted also that there is much more to the francophone world than just these celebrations. In fact, they constitute only a relatively small portion of the culture.

In developing their cultural competence, it should be noted that learners will acquire, in addition to heightened content awareness about Francophones and their own cultures, strategies whereby they can become more knowledgeable, sensitive and effective in hearing and reading the cultural code, which is sometimes subsumed under, and sometimes subsumes, the linguistic code. In this vein, cognitive strategies, such as identification, research, analysis and interpretation, are used to develop sensitivity to, and understanding of, francophone cultures while respecting their worlds as they are. Becoming socioculturally competent, a component of full communicative competence (Hymes, 1971; Canale and Swain, 1980; 1983), implies, then, both a content and a process orientation with respect to culture.

In the program of studies, the three levels of communicative growth and their corresponding sublevels describe a progression towards the global learner expectations, using cognitive strategies that are developed sequentially in accordance with the linguistic abilities of the students and not the students' actual cognitive development as it relates to their first language.

Table 2 below demonstrates this progression.

TABLE 2
SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CULTURAL
UNDERSTANDING THROUGH STRATEGY USE

Beginning Level	_____	• Identification
		▼
Intermediate Level	_____	• Research
		▼
Advanced Level	_____	• Analysis
		▼
Advanced Level	_____	• Interpretation

Table 3 shows the content concepts and describes skills or processes that relate to culture based on the students' linguistic abilities. It is recommended that learners begin with guided instruction and proceed to independent work. It should be noted, too, that this list contains suggestions only and is by no means exhaustive.

TABLE 3
CULTURAL CONTENT CONCEPTS AND CULTURAL SKILLS/PROCESSES
AS THEY RELATE TO COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE LEVEL

Level	Skill(s) Process(es)	Concept(s)	In What Context?	At What Communicative Language Level?
Beginning	Identify	1. The Presence of Francophones	- community members - famous people seen as representatives of the worlds of politics, entertainment, the arts, etc. - the fields of current events, history, geography, human demography, etc.	- Beginning 1 - immediate surroundings - Beginning 2 - local, provincial/ regional - Beginning 3 - provincial/ national
	Identify	2. Concrete Facts About Francophone Cultures	- surnames in the telephone directory - place names on maps - names of streets, schools, restaurants, businesses - media (radio, newspapers, magazines, television) - government advertisements - travel advertisements - holidays and celebrations - government pamphlets	- Beginning 1 - immediate surroundings - Beginning 2 - local, provincial/ regional - Beginning 3 - provincial/ national
Intermediate	Identify Similarities and Differences	1. The Daily Life of Francophones	- family - school - administrative services - consumer activities - leisure - media - clubs and associations - bilingual jobs - language of young people - fashion - holidays and celebrations	- Intermediate 4 - local and provincial/ regional - Intermediate 5 - national - Intermediate 6 - international

TABLE 3 (cont'd)

Level	Skill(s) Process(es)	Concept(s)	In What Context?	At What Communicative Language Level?
Advanced	Research, Analysis and Interpretation	1. Contribution of Francophones	- historical references - important dates and events - places - famous people	Advanced 7, 8, 9 – all five geographical levels (i.e., local, provincial, regional, national, international)
Advanced	Research, Analysis and Interpretation	2. Francophone Facts and Events	- historical references - important dates and everyday life - places • bilingual jobs • bilingualism in action • attitudes towards bilingualism	Advanced 7, 8, 9 – all five geographical levels (as listed above)
Advanced	Research, Analysis and Interpretation	3. How to Live in a Francophone or Bilingual Environment	• countries • living conditions - facilities - transportation • community life - street and neighbourhood - rural and urban living - various areas - political life - tensions, benefits	Advanced 7, 8, 9 – all five geographical levels (as listed above)

TABLE 3 (cont'd)

Level	Skill(s) Process(es)	Concept(s)	In What Context?	At What Communicative Language Level?
Advanced	Research, Analysis and Interpretation	4. Francophones Around the World	- the people and their lifestyles - way of life: food, leisure time, work, holidays and traditions - behaviour, relationships - types of housing - the people and their history - historical and chronological references - national symbols - basic data: dates, events, people and time periods - the people and their institutions - educational system - contributions to civilization - francophone dialects	Advanced 7, 8, 9 – all five geographical levels (as listed above)

The cultural content categories noted in the preceding chart provide us with numerous concrete references relative to culture (e.g., toponyms on maps, surnames in the telephone directories, historical and chronological references, the daily family life of Francophones and so on). While all of these suggested content elements appear to be clear and concrete enough, some are certainly more accessible than others. French-resonant toponyms on maps and surnames in telephone directories are more immediately and readily located, for example, than are life stories of so-called “ordinary” people or how Francophones on their streets and in their neighbourhoods live.

Teachers may wish that all the example content elements listed above be developed fully, with all cultural content mandated and sources of cultural content made explicit. Unfortunately, this is inherently impossible given the dynamic, changing nature of culture. Teachers, therefore, should keep in touch with the latest developments in the target culture. This can be achieved by frequently listening to French-language radio, watching French-language television, reading French-language periodicals and visiting francophone

milieus (whether in majority or minority francophone settings). In other words, the cultural content to be taught will be accessed more and more by way of authentic documents.

To return briefly to the example of how Francophones live in their communities, this content might be accessed by the classroom becoming involved in a multi-faceted exchange experience with a twin francophone classroom from elsewhere. With younger students, this experience might involve letter and/or video correspondence exchanges, teleconferencing, realia exchanges such as photos, postcards, local announcements/advertising and so on. Older students might actually visit and be visited by a francophone student exchange group. In either case, students will be provided with assistance (e.g., grids, questionnaires, interview formats, etc.) in how to find out more about their francophone counterparts.

Even more difficult than obtaining content relative to francophone culture is the development of processes or strategies (e.g., identification, research, analysis, interpretation) for fully understanding and appropriately interacting with the sociocultural code (i.e., developing sociocultural competence). The examples below illustrate how this process-based competence might be developed in students.

It is important to note that there are both overt and hidden/subconscious instances of culture in our lives and those of others. At the most conscious and overt level, one can speak of the **identification** of given cultural facts, practices, customs, habits and so forth, all of which are observable on the concrete level. For instance, to heighten students' awareness of the presence of Francophones in our midst, we might have them brainstorm and list the names of people both well-known or with whom they have come in contact. Students might be asked to study a map of Alberta or a telephone directory to identify/point out toponyms or family names which are likely francophone in origin. In looking at filmstrips, videos or perhaps magazine advertisements, which are replete with cultural indicators, students might be asked to note similarities and differences in fashions, hairstyles or linguistic slogans used to persuade or convince potential buyers. A question in point might be, for example: "Can francophone advertisers possibly use more superlatives than their anglophone counterparts?" In comparing oral and written texts emanating from, for example, Quebec and France, students might be asked to identify the "tu/vous" usages and the general levels of formality/informality operating in each of these francophone milieus. Numerous other examples exist to illustrate how these process skills of identification can be developed in classrooms to help students learning French to become more socioculturally competent.

Having students engage in individual and/or group discovery-learning activities helps them become inquisitive researchers. In this **research** process, they learn to behave like social scientists – linguists, sociolinguists, anthropologists, semioticians, sociologists – and not just sponges taking in

whatever comes along. In this sense they hone research and inquiry skills, determining what it is they are after and how they can best attain it. As well, they learn to go beyond the factual, obvious and superficial to determine why things are as they are. For example, in studying the question of Quebecers' self-identification, many issues might be considered. If, for example, the language aspect is studied, students will need to consider history, geography, current events and how the issue of language is perceived within Quebec. In addition, they will need to look at how others view/evaluate the Quebec perspective on language, where language is placed in Albertans' ordering of priorities in their western self-identification, the value of bilingualism, etc. The purpose of this kind of activity is to assist students in becoming more aware of the differences and similarities in how Quebecers and Albertans view the issue of language. Further, in order to understand Franco-Albertans' demand for uniquely francophone schools for their youngsters, students might be encouraged to write to their local or provincial office of the Association canadienne-française de l'Alberta, to interview a Francophone who never had the benefit of French-language schooling or to inquire into the history (i.e., steps or stages) in the setting up of a particular francophone school in Alberta. In addition, to determine the potential usefulness of bilingualism in their lives, students might be asked to study "want ads" in their local newspaper, a larger Alberta daily newspaper and a national newspaper, such as *Le Devoir* or *The Globe and Mail*, for a period of about one month, at the end of which they would compile their statistics, using bar graphs, percentages, etc., and report on the relative proportion and types of job opportunities in which bilingualism is required or would be an asset. Many more examples can be found in which students' research skills might be developed/refined, illustrating again how students can become more socioculturally competent.

The skills/processes associated with research include **analysis** and **interpretation**. Simply collecting or collating data is not enough. For example, to comprehend francophone and anglophone views on a particular issue, students as researchers might begin by collecting examples of letters to editors on that subject. Sheer volume in the one language as opposed to the other will certainly give us some clues as to the relative importance Anglophones and Francophones attribute to the issue. This research data, however, may still be giving us only superficial information. To probe deeper, students might analyse the letters for indicators of tone, emotive/objective quality or the distance/proximity the author establishes vis-à-vis himself/herself and the issue being discussed. The outcome of this kind of analysis will allow students to interpret relative feelings, ideas and so forth with respect to this issue.

In concluding this section, please note that Table 3 which appeared earlier contains suggestions only and there is no intention that it be viewed as exhaustive. Implicit, too, in its suggestions is the notion that in order to know others, the most ready access is by way of direct contact with francophone individuals, groups and their milieus. For this reason, limitations on what can

be realized in formal classroom situations, far removed from majority (or minority) francophone settings, must be recognized and accepted. As a result, teachers and learners using this program are to be encouraged to participate in exchanges of all kinds – direct travel exchanges with francophone student groups, exchanges of written correspondence and/or audio- or videotapes, telecommunications networking, etc.

Further, the suggestions made in the above chart imply a need on the part of teachers and students to go beyond using strictly didactic materials, such as texts, student workbooks or even supplementary resources, all of which have been created initially for use in instructional settings by non-native speakers, and to move towards the use of more authentic documents, such as francophone popular magazines, newspapers, radio announcements, television advertisements, all of which have been designed for use by francophone audiences. By doing so, students will have access to current facts, interests and preoccupations, culturally implicit nuances, assumptions and values shared with “insiders”, alternative points of view on issues, and so forth.

One of the positive outcomes of coming into firsthand contact, in these ways, with francophone cultures is the valuable insights students gain in terms of their understanding of others and in terms of cultural self-knowledge and self-awareness. At the same time, the notions of multiple perspectives and appreciation of uniqueness and shared values can be developed. The thought of Robert Burns, a Scottish poet, comes to mind: “If only we could see ourselves as others see us.” Just as students look at others and can see both commonalities and alternative perspectives, they can come to see their own underlying assumptions and values made explicit, and to understand better their own uniqueness and, perhaps even, “strangeness”, as they might be perceived by others.

In essence, this component describes how the target culture can be taught in the school setting as it recommends specific cultural skills as a means for learners to better understand francophone cultures and their own.

Language

Grammar analysis, the systematic study of languages' structural elements, has always played an important role in language teaching and has been the cornerstone of traditional approaches. It will continue to play a role in this more student-centred, communicative/experiential program. However, grammar, as will be seen, needs to take second place to that of the message in context. This philosophical orientation and approach does not abandon grammar; rather, it recognizes that language acquisition is a dynamic ongoing process that must be governed by communicative needs. Achieving effective communication involves developing grammatical awareness as well as many other things.

This component, therefore, advocates the development, in context, of linguistic competence or accuracy. The analysis of language is important but its principal role is to support non-analytical experimentation with the language in communicative contexts, with a view to improving and refining comprehension and production of language messages. Linguistic accuracy is analysed according to four main criteria: the systems of symbols (phonemic/graphic), vocabulary, grammar and discourse.

Linguistic symbols are both phonemic and graphic. Systems of symbols have been developed to illustrate language abstractions concretely on these two planes – oral and written. It should be noted that, while these systems of symbols can be analysed and can be taught/learned directly, deductively and in decontextualized pattern practice, perhaps even an exclusive rule-focused way, this is not necessarily the best way oral and written language is acquired. For this reason, the systems of oral and written symbols are not usually intended to be analysed, certainly not first and foremost, in this way in this program either. Rather, appropriate/correct pronunciation, structural or spelling patterns are acquired mainly indirectly, non-analytically, inductively, gradually, over time, focusing on the message, through use in personally-relevant linguistic-communicative contexts, in classroom environments rich in context-embedded themes, fields of experience and auditory, visual, gestural and related support materials. Subsequently, though sometimes simultaneously, language acquired in communicative-experiential activities is also analysed formally and directly, as needed, so that what is being acquired can be refined/perfected.

For example, the correct pronunciation of the phoneme sound [r], as it is used in French, should be experienced first and learned gradually in context. The refining/perfecting of students' oral production of this sound might include the use of somewhat contrived seeded passages, tongue-twisters (*accroche-mâchoirs*), repetition/mimicry exercises, etc. (See Glossary for an explanation of these terms and examples).

A specific example of how an experiential context and analytical language activity might be combined follows. Here, the students are going to experience the use of sounds.

EN FORME	MAINTENANT	ET	COMMENT
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Comment être en forme sans faire de jogging

Le jogging, c'est très bien. Mais il y a bien d'autres moyens d'être en forme.

Par exemple... Allez jouer dans le parc, Marc. Faites de la raquette, Huguette. Jouez au golf, Adolphe. Faites du vélo, Léo. Prenez des cours de danse, Hortense. Et si ça ne suffit pas...faites de l'escrime, Onésime. Ou du ski de randonnée, Renée. Faites ce que vous aimez, Aimé.

Après tout... Vous pouvez vous baigner dans la mer, Omer. Escalader une montagne, Charlemagne. Faire du patin à roulettes, Ginette. Ou juste aller dehors, Hector. Parce qu'il est temps de remonter vos manches, Blanche. De faire un effort, Nestor. De montrer que vous êtes capable, Amable.

Et bientôt... Vous retrouverez votre haleine, Hélène. Vous sortirez de la cave, Gustave. Vous aurez l'air bien plus fin, Séraphin. Vous deviendrez un as, Jonas. Vous serez encore plus belle, Isabelle.

Pensez-y... Trois fois par semaine, Philomène. Quinze minutes chaque fois, François. L'important, c'est de commencer, André, Barnabé, Dieudonné et Zoé.

Y a-t-il autant de façons d'être en forme qu'il y a de gens qui veulent être en forme? Oui, Louis... et comment, Armand.*

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The rhyming beat in this particular passage is quite remarkable, reminiscent perhaps of rap music, popular with young people in the early nineties. How this message is used might be approached in a number of ways (for example, the teacher reading it aloud, a single student or group of students reading it aloud, silent reading, etc.). In this case, a sound pattern, like that found in rap music, might be employed to help get the beat of these rhyming words, as voices "rap", hands beat, etc. Later, these same words, containing so many rhyming sounds, might be analysed in terms of sound groups and their corresponding orthographic forms (e.g., [e], which appears in the passage in the form of -er, -ez, é, et, etc.). The purpose of this kind of activity is to help students see the links between sound and graphic patterns in an experiential way. Similar principles could be applied to the teaching/learning of other elements of the language component – vocabulary, grammar and discourse.

Learning theorists and researchers have experimented for years with the rote memorization of disconnected, decontextualized lists of items, like verb lists.

Consistently, it has been shown that such activity is viewed by learners as meaningless. Granted that even though they are willing to subject themselves to this ritual, they would ordinarily place such items in memory only to be recalled, for example, for a classroom test and then quickly forgotten. To enhance vocabulary acquisition, development and retention, it is proposed that students be exposed to this vocabulary in an experiential context that is meaningful to them. The subject at hand or field of experience will determine the vocabulary to be taught/learned.

For example, in introducing a unit on "Food", the teacher might bring to class a bag of grocery items purchased during his/her most recent shopping outing. A scenario or experiential setting is created by the teacher. The presentation might follow along these lines: "Hier, j'ai fait mes courses au supermarché. J'ai dans mon sac les choses que j'y ai achetées. (The teacher begins to take the items out of the shopping bag.) Tiens, voici des bananes. Et des oranges. Et des raisins. Miam! miam! J'aime les fruits. Et les fruits sont bons pour nous aussi. Mais je dois avoir aussi des légumes. Bon, voici du brocoli, du chou-fleur et des carottes, etc...." At this acquisition stage, the students are experiencing a similar event they might do at home, upon returning from a shopping trip. In this instance, the experience is only receptive and no production is being asked of the students. The purpose of this activity is to have students acquire the food vocabulary in an experiential manner and not in a rote memorization fashion.

At the development stage, the teacher might take up the various food items spread out on his/her desk and replace them in the shopping bag, doing the following:

1. holding items in the air, inviting the students individually, in groups or as a whole class, to repeat after him/her, for example, "voici des carottes", etc., or, alternatively,
2. holding items in the air, inviting the students to respond to the question: "Qu'est-ce que c'est?", to which they will respond, for example, "C'est des bananes."

Thus, vocabulary acquisition and development will be reinforced by being focused on themes, student interests and needs and experiential experimentation. As was illustrated with the symbol systems discussed earlier, these kinds of experiential activities do not preclude analytical activities such as focusing on word structures, word families, false and legitimate cognates and so forth – foci which will serve again to refine the students' retention of the vocabulary acquired and developed thus far.

To continue with our current example on "Food", students' retention of the vocabulary already learned might be carried out in the following manner. Students might be invited to develop two lists, one with the new vocabulary

items in French, the other with a list of those items for which the words in the two languages are similar, if not identical. The purpose of this activity is twofold: 1) to develop vocabulary and 2) to learn a cognitive strategy for vocabulary acquisition. Retention of these new vocabulary items might be reinforced further by having the students develop their own shopping list for the following week for a camping trip they might take with their parents or for a Saturday night movie they might enjoy on their VCR with a group of friends. This type of activity will further reinforce the vocabulary acquired.

It is proposed, in addition, that grammatical structures will not be taught as discrete items, out of context, in isolation, as though there were a logical ordering for the introduction of these language elements. Rather, grammatical elements will be introduced in context, depending on the communicative intent, the linguistic requirements and the learners' level of language sophistication or communicative ability. To demonstrate how students might be assisted in the acquisition, development and retention of new grammatical elements, a number of examples from the different communicative levels identified in the program of studies will be illustrated.

If, for example, a given field of experience employs the verb "avoir" in a variety of contexts, teachers will be interested from a language perspective in helping students acquire, develop and retain this much-used language structure. For example, with the field of experience "School", at the acquisition stage, the teacher might utilize the immediate classroom environment in which the teacher and students interact daily in order to develop the verb "avoir". From his/her desk, the teacher might pick up familiar items, saying something like: "J'ai une règle sur mon bureau. J'ai aussi deux stylos, etc." Turning to a male student, for example, he/she might say: "Tu as une gomme à effacer sur ton pupitre. Tu as aussi un cahier d'exercices. Ah! mais, qu'est-ce que tu as dans ta poche?" The student might then respond with: "J'ai un peigne." The teacher could then turn to a female student and ask: "As-tu un peigne? Où as-tu ton peigne?", in which case she might answer: "Oui, c'est dans mon sac." Although the student's answer may not be in keeping with the "avoir" pattern, she has answered in a communicative way. The teacher can now reintroduce the "avoir" pattern by redirecting questions in this manner: "Alors, qu'est-ce que Jeanne a dans son sac?" or "Quelle est la différence entre la réponse de Jeanne et la réponse de Michel?" This example can continue until the whole verb "avoir" has been conjugated, if deemed appropriate/necessary at this point. Written visual supports might also be put on the board to help students as they acquire this verb. However, what is most important here is that the types of questions selected by the teacher consciously reflect the information gap process; i.e., student answers are not contrived, rather they reflect the students' reality, (e.g., when the teacher asked the male student what he had in his pocket, he/she had no idea what the student had there). Thus, experiential learning and language analysis will be combined. At the development and retention stages, the verb will be reintroduced and used in the context of the field of experience being developed.

At the acquisition stage, to assist students in differentiating between the “passé composé” and “imparfait”, for instance, a scenario based on Total Physical Response (T.P.R.) might be created wherein students are assigned roles in which some individuals pantomime completed past actions and others pantomime descriptive, inanimate roles, depicting ongoing or continuous past conditions, such as trees waving in the wind. The next step is for the teacher to ask the students to identify which actions are “passé composé” and which ones are “imparfait”. The purpose of the activity, then, is to give the students a visual mnemonic device that they can refer back to when needing to discern the use of the two tenses, while at the same time experiencing the difference between them.

At the development stage, in reinforcing the use of the conditional, we might ask students to carry out an oral interview activity in which they ask “strange” questions of peers in an effort to find out previously unknown things about them, as for example: “Si tu étais un(e) voiture/saison/vêtement, etc., quel(le) voiture/saison/vêtement, etc., serais-tu?” Necessarily, the response will also use the conditional. More importantly, though, an information gap is being filled in this communicative/experiential exchange.

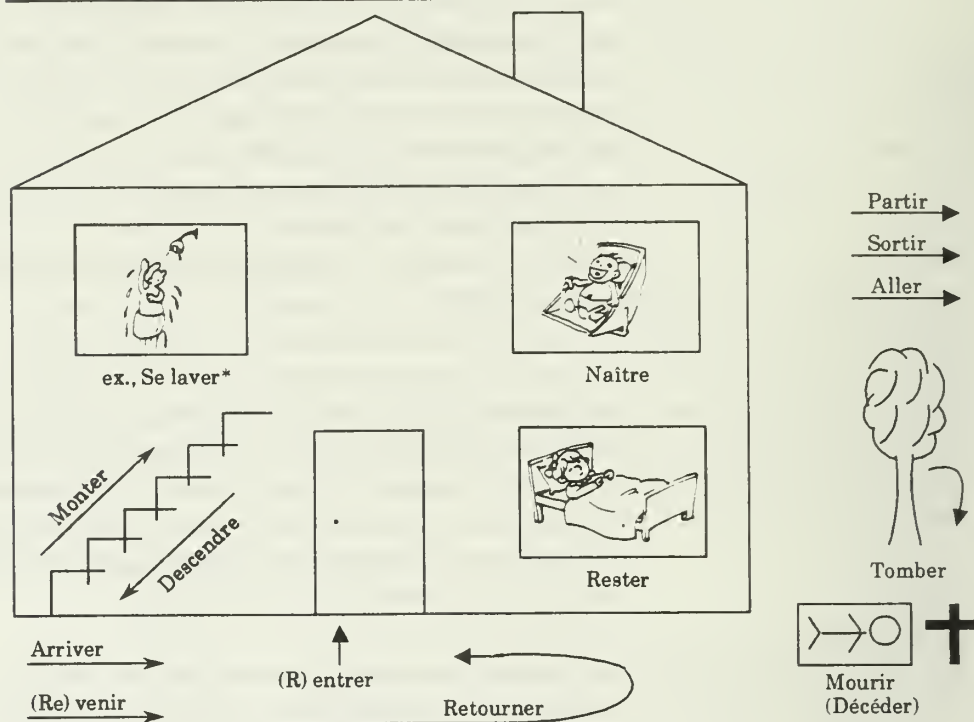
At the retention stage, the limited number of verbs conjugated with the auxiliary verb “être” in the “passé composé” might be mnemonically associated with an imaginary “Maison du verbe être” (see Figure 5).

The purpose of this example is to have the students create another story which centres around the house and employs the verbs which use “être” in the “passé composé”.

To be able to participate fully in any experience, either receptively or productively in linguistic terms, grammatical elements such as those cited in the examples above will be introduced as needed. For example, in traditional language or grammar-centred programs, the subjunctive has tended to be viewed as a complex grammatical concept to be introduced only at higher language levels. For formal entry, this will likely continue to be the case. However, should an earlier language experience require students, for instance, to express the idea of what they would like others to do, the subjunctive might be introduced informally in order to convey the communicative intent effectively. In summary, in this example and the others cited earlier, it has been shown that grammar should be experientially embedded in real contexts and analysed within these contexts.

Discourse, at its simplest, implies language use beyond the level of the sentence. While helping students develop their discourse competence, teachers are in fact helping them to perfect and refine, at the same time, their pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar usage. Much of the meaning conveyed via language, discourse analysts have shown us, is context-embedded and dependent on

FIGURE 5
“MAISON DU VERBE ÊTRE”



*Applies to all reflexive verbs.

linguistic inputs beyond the level of words or a single sentence. Learners are then brought gradually to relate their ideas coherently (i.e., the logical connection of ideas) and cohesively (i.e., the connection of linguistic elements and sentences and series of sentences). Examples of coherence being achieved are when “puisque” is used to relate a cause and effect in a given context or when “d'accord” is used to signal an enumeration of elements which are logically connected with reference to the first statement made. Cohesion is achieved when linguistic elements link sentences and series of sentences. For example, in the statement, “Pierre est revenu de Montréal hier. Il a pris le vol de 7 h.”, it is clear that the anaphora “il” refers to “Pierre”. However, without the first sentence, the listener would have no idea as to the referent when one uses “il” in the second sentence. When expressing themselves orally or in writing, students should be assisted in analysing their communicative products to verify the degree to which their “texts” are both coherent and cohesive.

While teachers have long had an intuitive sense of discourse elements (e.g., pause features, conversation starters, connectors, anaphoras, etc.) in speech, these have rarely been introduced systematically. It will be important in speech, for instance, that students understand and be able to use pause features appropriately. In English, when stumped for a response and needing pause time, one might articulate: “Well, um, -er, uh...” These same features appear in French and would be rendered in this fashion: “Euh, eh bien, bon, bien, alors, enfin...” In another example, when initiating a conversational exchange, it will

be helpful for students to know that if they wish to avoid creating the impression that they are rude, they will need to use appropriate conversational openers like: "Pardon, monsieur!" In the case of a telephone conversation, one does not end with a simple expression of "Au revoir." Rather, the close of the conversation is prepared somewhat, with an expression such as: "Bon, Paulette, ça m'a fait plaisir de te parler de nouveau. Au revoir et à la prochaine (fois). Au revoir."

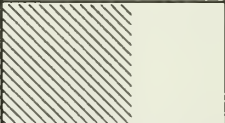
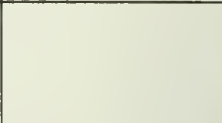
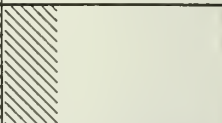
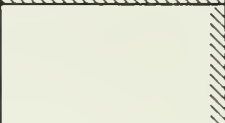
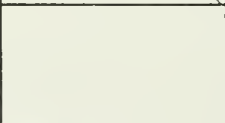
Likewise, in written language, students have to understand that, when articulating a logical conclusion to a preceding argument, the conclusion will appear incomplete without the coherence connector "donc" or "alors". Letter introductions and closures, too, for instance, have linguistic communicative formulae that must be respected. Thus, discourse strategies, as mentioned above, will have to be embedded in an intricate process of refinement as students gradually develop enhanced sensitivity to linguistic subtleties in oral and written texts, thereby becoming more effective communicators by fully operationalizing the power of language.

For introducing the study of French pronunciation and writing symbol systems, vocabulary, grammar and discourse features, it is suggested that the emphasis will vary, depending upon the students' level of communicative competence, though there will certainly be some degree of overlap in emphasis throughout the program. For example, there will be more direct emphasis on pronunciation features and orthography at the **Beginning** level than at more advanced communicative levels, just as discourse features will be emphasized more at the **Advanced** level than at the **Beginning** level. Table 4 demonstrates where the program of studies places emphasis on each of the four criteria.

Like the other components, language is taught/learned progressively, in a manner that will encourage the learner's communicative development. Each instance of language analysis must have the learner's language development as its goal. Despite this philosophy, the question of accuracy remains important, but the attitude to errors should become flexible. In keeping with the principle that communication is to be encouraged, spontaneous expression must not be interrupted by insistence on complete grammatical perfection in a communicative situation or activity.

Interruptions, which could take place, should be natural perception and verbal checks, as would occur in one's first language. The teacher's role at this point is to note repeated or recurring errors that impede comprehension and/or production of messages and to analyse them later in a more structured context. Errors should not be viewed in a negative fashion only. By analysing errors diagnostically, the teacher not only will correct the errors, but also will assist students in better understanding and adjusting their communicative needs. This kind of analysis can also help teachers obtain information about students' learning strategies.

TABLE 4
EMPHASIS PLACED ON FOUR LINGUISTIC CRITERIA

Communicative Level Linguistic Elements	Beginning	Intermediate	Advanced
System of Sounds/Symbols			
Vocabulary			
Grammar			
Discourse			

Key:



Emphasis



Development/Refinement

In summary, the aim of the language component is to provide learners with the necessary linguistic tools to develop and meet their communicative needs in an ongoing refinement process which will continue throughout the students' entire experience in acquiring the French language.

General Language Education

In today's classroom, teachers recognize the need to respect individuals' preferred forms of learning/thinking. It is in this vein that this component stresses the importance of strategic learning in terms of the progressive development of cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive learning strategies (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) in the second language. In the current program, a learning strategy is considered to be the process of using or combining various aspects of thought to complete a task or to solve a problem, such as a lack of communication, lag in comprehension, etc., in order to facilitate the learning of the target language. The development of these learning strategies, which assist students in becoming better second language learners, is described in the specific learning expectations in the program of studies.

Cognitive learning strategies involve thinking skills. In other words, strategies such as: 1) repeating, 2) matching, 3) memorizing, 4) making associations and 5) applying knowledge from one's native language are used to learn a second language.

In this context, repeating does not have the traditional meaning most frequently associated with this skill, i.e., mimicry; rather, in this instance, repeating is a cognitive process that can involve listening to authentic texts a number of times as a means of increasing one's exposure to the language and acquiring meaning from it. In terms of oral production, rehearsing an oral text either produced by the students themselves or by others is another form of repeating. Copying down words or sentences is also a repeating skill since form, not the creation of meaning, is the goal.

Matching is a cognitive skill which involves students in putting words, concepts or ideas together. The kinds of activities that are associated with this skill include: matching vocabulary words with pictures, making complete sentences from two column lists or matching sentences that mean the same but are said or written differently, such as, "I have some hats/I own a number of hats."

Another cognitive skill that assists in acquiring the language is memorizing, but again it is not used here in the rote memory sense. Rather, memorizing constitutes storing (putting properly into memory) information items such as grammar rules, common linguistic patterns or formulae, certain phonetic rules such as elision, nasalization, etc.

Another very important cognitive skill deals with making associations with either words, ideas or concepts to sound, visual or non-verbal cues. These associations can relate to onomatopoeic sounds like *crac!* – the sound a door makes, or *oua-oua!* – the sound a dog makes or to provide words or ideas that relate to certain concepts such as winter, Christmas and so on. Further associations can be made using map symbols or weather symbols to convey meaning or gestures such as shrugging of one's shoulders to mean "Je ne sais pas" or "Je m'en fiche."

Using knowledge from one's first language to better comprehend the second language is a cognitive skill that should encourage students to be more confident with the language. The kinds of skills that one can employ from one's first language are: 1) using informed guessing to discern meaning from oral or written texts, 2) using contextual clues to assist in the comprehension of a text, 3) using the dictionary to determine the meaning of a word, 4) skimming or scanning written texts for information, 5) using one's knowledge about text genre to determine the type of text or 6) making notes for further reference.

Socio-affective learning strategies involve learners' personalities and their maturity in the acquisition of the second language. In order to enhance learning, a positive attitude towards the use of the language must be developed.

In this regard, learners are encouraged to take risks, cooperate with peers, ask questions regarding their work or the instructions given or to verify or clarify their comprehension.

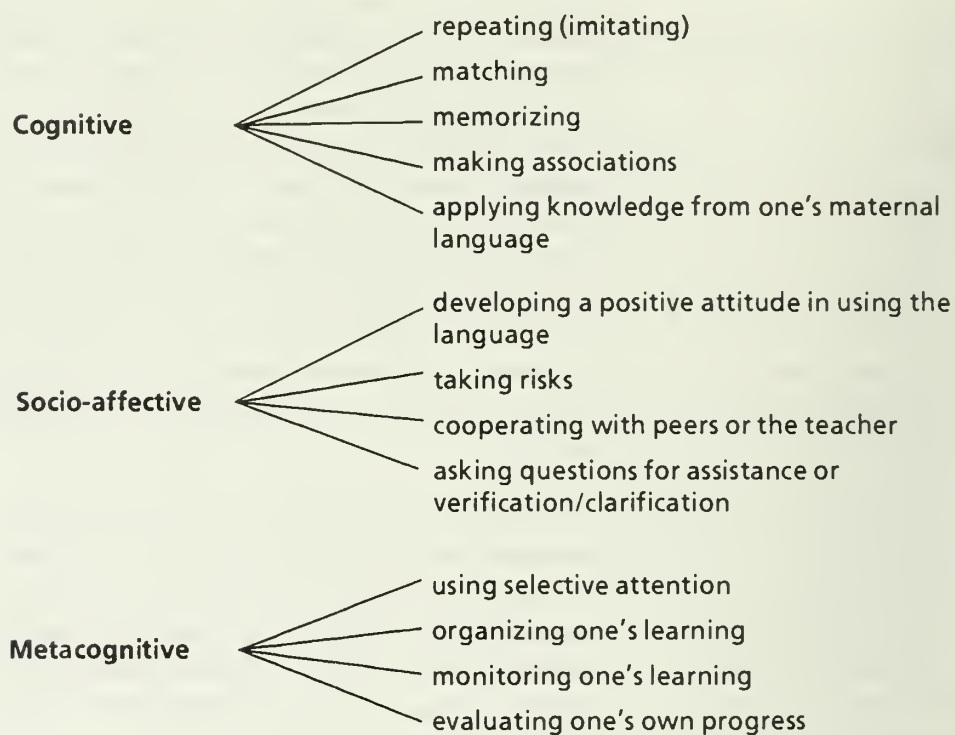
To develop a positive attitude towards the learning of language, teachers should encourage students to participate in group or paired activities, ensuring that students' strengths are exemplified and not their weaknesses. These activities assist students in becoming self-motivated and self-initiating while using grids such as self-reflections on performance or peer evaluations as a means of improving their learning as well as raising to a conscious level what it is they are or are not capable of doing. In essence, these kinds of activities enhance one's self-concept. To develop risk-taking behaviours, students must be encouraged to volunteer answers to questions asked by the teacher, fellow students or even native speakers; to provide input in the target language in such activities as brainstorming or surveying; to participate in impromptu skits where errors are more likely to occur; or to create messages either in oral or written form in the target language. This risk-taking behaviour can be enhanced further by cooperating with peers or teachers in group or paired activities, by following instructions and participating actively in cooperative learning activities and by providing fellow students with assistance. To enhance students' self-perceptions of their language learning abilities, they should be encouraged to ask questions. Clarification or verification questions which require repeating, paraphrasing, rephrasing or even slowing down a conversation will provide students with a support mechanism to verify their hypotheses regarding their comprehension of the language or the learning task. Asking for assistance from a peer or a teacher is another support mechanism for students to verify their learning. In essence, then, socio-affective strategies assist in building students' self-esteem, self-concept and self-confidence.

Metacognition describes how students reflect upon the organization of their thinking as a means of improving language learning/acquisition. Metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990; O'Mally and Chamot, 1990), such as selective attention, planning and organizing one's learning, monitoring one's learning (as in the case of self-correction) and self-evaluation techniques assist students in improving their learning in general and their comprehension and use of the language more specifically. Selective attention requires students to focus on the task at hand by directing their full attention to the instructions given or by selecting beforehand the tactics needed to carry out the task, such as listening for key information or skimming/scanning the text. In planning and organizing one's learning, students are required to raise to a conscious level the steps needed to carry out a task and to decide upon the best or most efficient means of doing so. This planning can be verbalized as a group or written down individually. The goal of this consciousness-raising process is to teach students how to prepare for learning activities as a means of becoming more efficient learners.

Monitoring one's learning involves students in learning how to become consciously aware of their errors. This can be accomplished by showing students how to listen to themselves so as to be able to correct their oral productions or by using self-reflection or performance grids (see **Student Evaluation Guide**), which assist students in monitoring their language and acquisition of the language. Evaluating one's own progress involves students in consciously deciding about their progress. The most common process is the use of self-evaluation or peer evaluation techniques which are described in the **Student Evaluation Guide**. These techniques are valuable in that they develop students' ability to accept their strengths and weaknesses and encourage them to improve upon the former and learn from the latter. They also provide students with the opportunity to determine to what extent they have been successful in their learning and acquisition of skills and knowledge. In essence, metacognitive strategies assist students in becoming more consciously aware of their learning processes and their acquisition of the language.

In this program of studies, specific strategies are introduced progressively at each level; however, these strategies may be used at any level where deemed necessary. According to Oxford (1990), the use of appropriate learning strategies enhances the development of language proficiency and builds learner confidence. Thus, the use of learning strategies promotes learner autonomy in language acquisition (Oxford, 1990) in addition to improving communication and increasing students' self-confidence. Concrete examples of how to develop these strategies will be discussed in other sections of this **Teacher Resource Manual**. (See, for instance, the section on Learning Strategies.) What follows is a graphic summary (Table 5) of the most common learning strategies discussed above.

TABLE 5
SUMMARY OF THE MOST COMMON LEARNING STRATEGIES



In the next section, we will discuss the practical application and integration of the four components within a suggested teaching methodology.

Suggested Teaching Methodology

The purpose for proposing a teaching methodology is to suggest a framework in which the learner expectations, the resources available to the teacher and the various learning and evaluation activities are combined into a logical and systematic unit. This will ensure the integrity of the language, the coherence of instruction and the compatibility of classroom strategies/techniques being employed with the underlying philosophy of the program. In order to attain this goal, six pedagogical principles have been proposed to enable teachers to develop and enhance their teaching practices.

Pedagogical Principles

The development of communicative language use implies personal involvement, which brings about autonomous, responsible and general learning on the part of the learner. In order to facilitate and encourage this orientation, teaching practices should be employed that ensure such development. The integration of the following six principles reflects the program of studies' basic philosophy which aims not only to assist teachers with long- and short-term planning, but also to guide them in developing their own evolving philosophical premises. These six principles are as follows:

- 1. Learning activities must provide students with language experiences in French that are relevant to their lives.**
- 2. Communication is the primary goal and it is by communicating that one develops language; i.e., language is viewed, first and foremost, as a vehicle for communicating about one's reality and coming to understand that of others.**
- 3. Language and culture must be taught/learned in such a way that they are seen as inseparable and dynamic.**
- 4. The linguistic code must be presented in context; therefore, it is not taught in isolation, but rather its analysis, as applicable, is contingent upon its being used to understand and express communicative intents.**
- 5. Learners' maturity (whether developmental and/or linguistic), preference for learning/thinking and use of individual learning strategies must be respected in order to enhance their general language education and personal development.**

6. **Evaluation, be it formative or summative, must integrate the four components of a multidimensional curriculum and reflect the non-analytical and analytical teaching practices employed in the learning of the language.**

Brief explanations of these principles, which promote the integration of the four components in a multidimensional curriculum, follow.

PRINCIPLE 1

Learning activities must provide students with language experiences in French that are relevant to their lives.

This principle deals with the learning and use of French from an experiential, rather than an analytical, point of view. At the outset, the learners have knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviours that predispose them to all learning. The role of the teacher is to create an environment that is related to the learners' fields of experience. The learning situations must be stimulating, based on the learners' needs and interests and represent, as closely as possible, real life situations that afford the opportunity to explore, i.e., to live new or to extend previously lived personal experiences.

In interacting with their environment, learners not only use their linguistic knowledge but also their general knowledge to approach the learning of the language intuitively. In this regard, the accumulation and the richness of these experiences encourage language development.

PRINCIPLE 2

Communication is the primary goal and it is by communicating that one develops language; i.e., language is viewed, first and foremost, as a vehicle for communicating about one's reality and coming to understand that of others.

According to LeBlanc (1990) "the development of communicative skills depends on the student's interest in communicating and his need to communicate", (p. 35). This principle considers teaching/learning to be a dynamic process, where an exchange of ideas, feelings, emotions or information helps refine the learners' communication skills. Thus, learners learn to communicate by communicating, just as athletes learn a sport by practising and playing it.

According to an interpretation of Stern by LeBlanc (1990), the role of the teacher is to offer a variety of pedagogical activities which reflect the natural learning conditions of the language, as well as to create authentic learning situations and experiences that will contribute to learners' language development and general education. These activities must motivate learners in such a way that they will want to participate as a means of enhancing their knowledge. Learners are, therefore, placed in a situation where they use the language for a set purpose within a defined context, drawing upon all their verbal/non-verbal knowledge and learning strategies in order to understand or

to be understood. Placed in interaction with their environment, they must negotiate the meaning of messages in order to communicate successfully. The development of communication moves progressively from structured interaction, to spontaneous participation and finally to an advanced degree of refinement of the communication skills (aural comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension and written expression).

PRINCIPLE 3

Language and culture must be taught/learned in such a way that they are seen as inseparable and dynamic.

In the program of studies, culture focuses on the anthropological and sociological definitions which emphasize the contemporary. Learners are led to observe, analyse and interpret how Francophones live, think and behave using the past as a reference for better understanding of francophone cultures today. To this end, the teaching process proceeds in a spiral fashion allowing learners to move progressively from simple to more advanced cultural aspects and from a personal, local context to an international context by studying the people, facts and events representing the contemporary reality of Francophones.

In the classroom, as students become attuned to cultural clues embedded in the French language, this experience, among others, will prepare them to communicate as effectively as possible with Francophones. Therefore, teaching practices must help students learn to interpret the variety of environments and situations they may encounter in the francophone world; for example, interpreting and using correctly the “tu/vous” distinction in different francophone contexts. Without the appropriate cultural referents, it will be difficult and sometimes even impossible for students to negotiate the meaning of many, if not all, communications.

PRINCIPLE 4

The linguistic code must be presented in context; therefore, it is not taught in isolation, but rather its analysis, as applicable, is contingent upon its being used to understand and express communicative intents.

Language teaching centres around what is to be understood or produced, i.e., the communicative intent and how to interpret or formulate it, or, in other words, how to use the language according to the context. Thus, this principle recognizes the analytical aspect of language development, where the focus is on language analysis for the following purposes: to discover the rules governing its structure (grammar); to improve one's comprehension and refine one's production of a message (pronunciation, form or spelling); and to become aware of and use the lexical and discursive elements that make messages coherent and cohesive.

Thus, it is important to point out that language learning is not based on the mastery of isolated linguistic elements as an end in itself; rather, it emphasizes

the need for accuracy and refinement in bringing about more effective interpretation and expression of messages in context. Although the program of studies advocates the primacy of the message over the form, the amount of emphasis placed on the accuracy of the linguistic code (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation/spelling, fluency and socio-linguistic elements) will depend on the learners' stage of language development. For example, the contribution of grammar to improving communication will be greater at an advanced level than at a beginning level, where the focus will be more on vocabulary acquisition.

Language learning activities, then, must always be organized in a contextualized fashion in order to best meet the learners' linguistic-communicative/developmental needs in the areas of comprehension and production in oral or written form.

PRINCIPLE 5

Learners' maturity (whether developmental and/or linguistic), preference for learning/thinking and use of individual learning strategies must be respected in order to enhance their general language education and personal development.

One of the aims of the French as a second language program is to make the learning of French an integral part of students' general education; i.e., it is student-centred as opposed to subject- or teacher-centred. This does not suggest, however, a laissez-faire orientation; rather, it implies that students become more responsible for their own learning and, ultimately, autonomous in their acquisition of the language and in their learning in general. In order to achieve this goal, it is essential that learners be taught to make connections between the learning of French and other aspects of their lives. To stress this point, teachers must take every opportunity to demonstrate and share how they use different cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive strategies in their own teaching/learning practices. The learning of French should allow learners to acquire new cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive strategies that will enable them not only to learn French, but also to enhance their general development as individuals.

Moreover, by respecting each learner's level of developmental and/or linguistic maturity, preference for learning and individual learning strategies, teachers will assist students in learning a second language more effectively and efficiently. One of the positive outcomes of raising these skills and this knowledge to a conscious level in the second language, particularly when they often remain unconscious in the first language, is the possible transfer for the conscious refinement, by students, of interpretive and expressive abilities in their mother tongue. In essence, then, the goal of this consciousness-raising process is to enhance students' overall linguistic and personal development.

PRINCIPLE 6

Evaluation, be it formative or summative, must integrate the four components of a multidimensional curriculum and reflect the non-analytical and analytical teaching practices employed in the learning of the language.

Language development is a lengthy process, requiring much patience and nurturing and, therefore, warrants continual monitoring and feedback to inform students of their progress in learning the language. To ensure that this is carried out, formative and summative evaluation must be an integral part of any teaching methodology. In this regard, evaluation may be done by the learners themselves, their peers and/or the teacher.

Formative evaluation makes it possible to verify students' progress in terms of the program's learner expectations. Its purpose is to enable learners to be consciously aware of what they do well or not so well, by examining their strengths and what should be improved upon in terms of knowledge, skills and the use of French in learning situations. This evaluation may be done by the teacher, but learners must be encouraged to take an active role in the process. In this way, learners will gain a better understanding of the nature and development of learning and of thought as expressed in language in addition to becoming more accountable for their learning and their language performance.

On the other hand, summative evaluation (generally given in percentage or letter grades) is used mainly for administrative purposes such as decisions on promotion and for the awarding of credits in addition to providing valuable feedback to students.

Both types of evaluation must closely reflect the program's learner expectations and the activities developed and used during the learning process. The multidimensional curriculum advocates the integration of the four components (experience/communication, culture, language and general language education) in all learning activities; for the evaluation to be valid, therefore, these four components must be integrated into the evaluation process.

Traditionally, subjectivity has been viewed as problematic in evaluation. This is so because, in an age before the discipline of educational evaluation helped make us more sophisticated in our development of evaluation instruments, we did not fully recognize the need for validity, reliability, criteria and so forth. In an effort to make evaluation more systematic, scientific and, therefore, allegedly unbiased, objectivity for the sake of objectivity became the mainstay. However, in most areas of learning, as in language learning in particular, it was discovered that truly objective criteria are rare. As well, so-called purely objective criteria were found wanting; i.e., they were generally evaluating only lower-order student learning outcomes.

Thus, there has been a shift in evaluation thinking to acknowledge the place of subjectivity in evaluation. However, to avoid subjectivity's pitfalls (e.g., bias, favoritism, want of reliability, etc.), more recent evaluation models advocate clearly articulated evaluation criteria, subjective or objective, so as to make the whole process more systematic and, therefore, fairer, less biased, valid and reliable.

In this program, our approach is based on judging observable, articulated criteria that show the extent to which the program's learner expectations have been achieved. These criteria are based on the fact that teachers must: 1) know what objectives from the program's four components they are evaluating, 2) specify their observable criteria for judging what they will accept as evidence that the objectives have been achieved, 3) outline their methods of formative evaluation (e.g., objectivation/reflection, observation, self-evaluation) or weigh the criteria for summative evaluation (e.g., 5% for one criterion, 20% for another) and 4) choose evaluation activities that are valid, i.e., that are compatible with learning activities used, whether analytical or non-analytical. (For further information on evaluation and evaluation techniques, please refer to the **Student Evaluation Guide**.)

Teacher and Student Roles

The approach to be suggested is not intended to impose a particular teaching style, but rather strives to respect the variety and flexibility of teaching practices while at the same time ensuring the integration of the four components of the program of studies and the application of the six pedagogical principles outlined above. For a better understanding of the proposed methodology, two fundamental points will be raised: 1) the role of the teacher and 2) the role of the student.

The purpose of language teaching is to develop students who will have communicative, grammatical, discursive, socio-cultural and strategic knowledge that they can use in real communicative situations. An extension of this knowledge and skill development comes in the language experiences developed in the classroom. Thus, the role of the teacher is to work towards student attainment of the learner expectations prescribed in the program of studies. To achieve this, the teacher selects and organizes learning and evaluation activities (alone or with the students' help) and chooses the learning resources to be used. In this approach, the teacher also acts as resource person, language model, coach and facilitator for the students. In addition, the teacher's role is to ensure that the language used in the classroom is French; in other words, French is not only the subject of instruction but also the language of instruction.

Teachers should be aware that the envisioned standard is that articulated on Radio-Canada (French language programming), bearing in mind that even

within the parameters of this standard there are dialectical variants. In this vein, there is a special responsibility on the part of the teachers to be cognizant of and able to explain those language variations that have most influenced the language used by the teachers themselves. Thus, the teachers' language usage will become the students' primary model shared in the classroom.

The role of students is to become involved in and take responsibility for their learning. Even if the stimuli are presented by outside sources (teacher, text, video/audio cassette, radio, etc.), the discovery and awareness of the language, its comprehension, production, negotiation, application and transfer must come from the students. In other words, only students can want to learn the language; nobody else can do it for them. As indicated throughout this **Teacher Resource Manual**, students are necessarily actively engaged in completing educational projects as researchers, organizers of events, interviewers, presenters, debaters, speech writers, actors and so forth. It is through this process that they are moving towards becoming fully autonomous learners.

Phases in the Teaching Process

The suggested methodology is composed of five phases: preparatory, experience, reflection, reinvestment and evaluation phases, all of which are interrelated and which are presented graphically, in cyclical form, in Figure 6. It is important to note that formative evaluation occurs continuously and at every phase of the teaching process. Teachers must plan as many and as varied activities as are required and desired for each phase so as to help bring about as complete and as enriched as possible language development in a given field of experience. In general, the receptive skills (aural or reading comprehension) are introduced before the productive skills (oral production, written expression) in order to ensure their progressive development.

FIGURE 6
FIVE-PHASE TEACHING PROCESS



In essence, the methodology being suggested here can be viewed in two ways: 1) as the overall framework for teaching and 2) as the guiding principles for unit and lesson planning. At the unit planning stage, a single phase may occur over a number of lessons or may be completed within a lesson. At the daily lesson plan level some or all of the phases may be completed. Consequently, there is flexibility and variability in the length of time it takes to complete a phase within the cycle. An explanation of each phase follows below.

The **preparatory phase** consists mainly of sparking the learners' interest. The aim at this point is to establish a connection between learners' personal experiences and the learning experience that is to take place by describing, in precise terms, the objectives to be achieved. This stage begins with an introduction that motivates learners to take part in the experience to be developed. The context of the situation is usually presented in order to allow learners to be able to anticipate as many language and experiential elements as possible. Teacher judgment will also have to come into play at this phase as to whether or how much preparatory activity ought to take place, dependent on students' linguistic-communicative abilities, background with a given field of experience and so forth.

The **experience phase** consists of having learners fully participate in a linguistic and experiential interaction within a given environment (field of experience). The objective of this purely non-analytical step is to satisfy a communicative intent by emphasizing the message and not the form. The nature of the activities chosen should be consistent with the students' linguistic-communicative levels. Thus, **Beginning** level activities with elementary school age students will be primarily of an aural/oral, active/experiential, perhaps even mainly receptive nature, whereas at the **Advanced** level, activities will centre more on sophisticated listening, oral production, reading and/or writing activities.

The **reflection phase** allows an analytical review of the experience phase. In other words, the knowledge, processes and learning strategies required for the experience and their contribution to the degree of success of the communicative intent(s) are reflected upon either formally or informally. This may be done orally through the use of question/answer techniques, for example, or through the use of grids to enhance the learners' awareness of the entire experience. In a practical teaching situation this phase might take place in as short a period as a minute or two, where the teacher asks a question that probes for a quick answer regarding the skills/knowledge used, or it may entail a more detailed analysis, using grids as the basis of reflection, with the teacher, a peer and/or groups of students raising questions and/or providing feedback relative to the experience.

The **reinvestment phase** is a natural extension of the preceding stages. Essentially, two complementary processes may be engaged at this phase: transfer or transposition. Transfer involves the reinvestment of the knowledge, processes and learning strategies developed through experience and reflection to another situation or context in order to have students participate in a

different but related experience. Transposition involves the same kind of reinvestment, however, in this case the knowledge, processes and learning strategies developed in the experience and reflection phases are reinvested in another skill area. For example, what was developed in an oral production activity originally is now redeveloped in a written activity. Thus, one or more reinvestment phases could be used at any point after the experience to expand the knowledge, processes and learning strategies that have already been developed.

Evaluation is the last **phase** which allows teachers to determine the learners' relative degrees of success in terms of their achievement as it relates to the objectives of the learning experience. Formative evaluation at the end of a unit provides information about a student's attainment of learner expectations which will be used to determine remedial or enrichment activities. Formative evaluation will be the primary form of evaluation used on an ongoing basis.

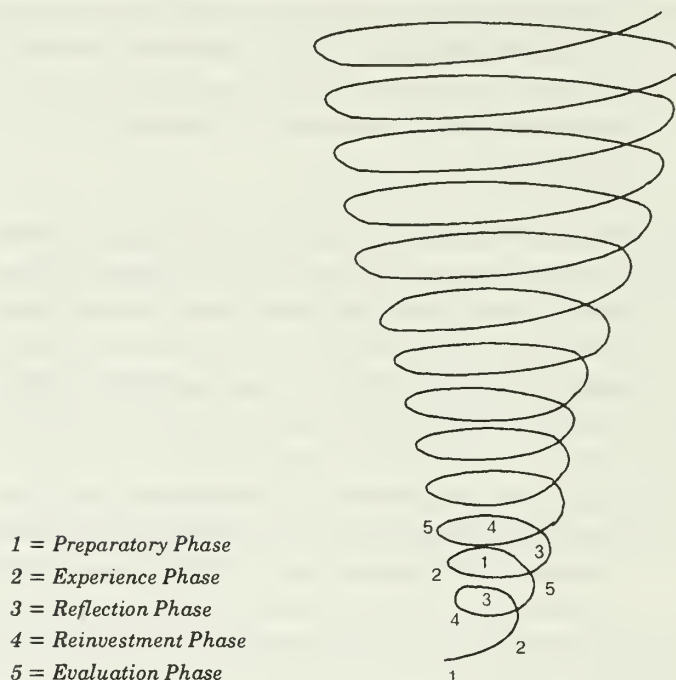
Formative evaluation is used throughout these four stages to ensure and to confirm students' learning. A variety of techniques can be used to evaluate students in this manner, such as observation, verification of oral and/or written communication, objectivation, evaluation by peers or self-evaluation. (See the **Student Evaluation Guide** for a detailed explanation of these techniques.)

It should be noted that, while multiple formative evaluation techniques are being suggested here and in the **Student Evaluation Guide**, these are being suggested only as examples. Teachers will develop, along with their instructional plans, an evaluation plan that will incorporate a number of grids, self-evaluation and peer evaluation instruments, checklists and so forth that they feel are needed to effectively evaluate their students' progress. Considerable informal formative evaluation will also go on, such as day-to-day teacher observations, without any formal instruments necessarily being developed/employed. All the same, formative evaluation is very important, must be planned for and should include both formal and informal types of evaluation.

Summative evaluation involves gathering information about student achievement of learner expectations which will be used to make administrative decisions about grades, credits and promotion. Summative evaluation will be used when these administrative decisions need to be made about a student's attainment of learner expectations.

Once the evaluative phase is finished, the cycle is complete. Learners find they have new and enriched knowledge, attitudes and behaviour. This is when the five-stage cycle begins again with new learning experiences. The growing complexity of experiences ensures the learners' progress. Figure 7 shows the continual cyclical movement of the five phases which incorporates formative evaluation from the preparatory phase through to the summative/formative evaluation phase.

FIGURE 7
STUDENT GROWTH IN A FIVE-PHASE TEACHING PROCESS



As we have indicated at the beginning of this section, this suggested teaching process is intended to have program-wide application. Thus, all five phases, including continuous formative evaluation, will be present in all the fields of experience and integrated units throughout the program. At the levels of unit and daily lesson planning, however, how these phases are actually organized and given emphasis may vary from one unit or lesson to another and within given units. For example, at the levels of planning and program delivery, the preparatory phase may take up a whole lesson or perhaps even a couple of lessons, depending upon the field of experience under study, students' language abilities or the nature of the integrated unit being developed, whereas in another, this phase may take up only a small part of the beginning of a given lesson. In another case, reinvestment may be the major focus of an entire lesson or may be a small part of a given lesson. In other words, within a given unit, the five-phase teaching process may occur only once or a number of times or, in a given daily lesson plan, either only a portion or the entire process may be completed. Therefore, teachers should be aware that this suggested teaching process is flexible and variable and will depend upon a number of factors. Moreover, it demonstrates confidence in teachers as professionals who are able to best adapt the teaching process to complement their individual teaching styles and to meet the developmental learning needs of their students.

In closing this section, we have seen that the suggested teaching process involves five phases which can be applied as an overall teaching methodology

and as a practical guide to unit and daily lesson planning. Table 6 below summarizes the key points of each phase.

TABLE 6
SUMMARY OF THE TEACHING PROCESS

Preparatory Phase	Experience	Reflection	Reinvestment	Evaluation
• Selection of objectives to be achieved and the motivational device to be used to introduce the objectives • Placement of the experience in context • Anticipation of required knowledge	• Presentation of the experience in interaction with the environment in a purely non-analytical fashion	• Analysis of the experience by a formative process	• Recycling of knowledge processes and/or learning strategies with respect to another skill or a different or more complex situation or context	• Communicative activity – comprehension and/or production (oral/written) compatible with the learning experience • Formative or Summative • Continuous feedback to students on their progress (formative) • Decisions about grades, credits, promotion (summative)
← FORMATIVE EVALUATION → • Continuous feedback to students on their progress • Can be done formally or informally				

How this suggested teaching methodology can be employed in helping teachers develop students' aural comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension and written expression skills and the integration of the four components of the program of studies will be discussed in detail in the Strategies and Activities section and the Planning section which follow.

Strategies and Activities

This section will describe a variety of ways in which the four language skills – aural comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension and written expression – can be developed in the context of a multidimensional curriculum. Although the skills will be discussed separately, more often than not many of the skills are intertwined, since in reality they are used in this manner. Therefore, some examples of this nature will be given in order to demonstrate how this occurs. Each skill will be discussed in terms of how it is developed, followed by some practical examples in order to illustrate the explanation given. Activities regarding learning strategies, grouping students and the types and uses of learning resources will also be addressed.

Aural Comprehension

Although we often refer to aural comprehension (listening comprehension) as a receptive skill, the word “receptive” must not take on the connotation of passivity. Rather, listening is an active process which entails the use of cognitive strategies such as guessing, clumping together of known material so as to attend to the unknown, recognizing linguistic and semantic patterns and using one's ability and experience to anticipate contextual elements (Glisan, 1988). The purpose of listening, then, is twofold: 1) to participate in discourse and 2) to obtain information, i.e., listening serves a need or a purpose (Bacon, 1989, p. 544). Thus, the kinds of activities that are used to develop this skill must represent this need to listen, while involving both the problem-solving and information-getting processes.

Listening constitutes discerning meaning from active participation in the information-getting process; however, meaning is contingent upon context: without a context, meaning is difficult to discern. Knowing and comprehending the context become the key elements in developing understanding. This is best exemplified by the illustration given in Roger Tremblay's module for the development of aural comprehension*. He describes a situation similar to the one given here. If one hears the statement “Shut the door!”, we all understand that the person making the statement wants the door closed. However, what we do not know is the underlying context of the statement. For example, one context may relate to a person who is studying and, because there is far too much noise for him/her to concentrate, he/she wants the door closed. Another may find a person talking on the telephone who wishes some privacy in his/her conversation. Consequently, he/she asks to have the door shut. Or, a person is taking a shower and someone has left the door open allowing the cold air to enter, thus prompting a request for the door to be closed. Therefore, hearing the

**The aural comprehension module cited here belongs to a set of teacher development modules developed by Roger Tremblay for the Centre Éducatif et Culturel.*

statement “Shut the door!” does not necessarily ensure full comprehension; rather, it allows for a number of interpretations to occur. Context, then, is a necessary element of a given speech act and ensures a greater possibility that full comprehension will be attained.

In general, any given context consists of five basic elements (Tremblay, 1989, p. 15):

1. the participants, i.e., those persons involved in the communicative act;
2. the relationship existing between the participants (for example, client/sales clerk, parent/child, waiter/customer, etc.);
3. the communicative intent(s) used for participating in the speech act (for example, persuading someone to do something, asking for information, refusing an invitation, etc.);
4. the medium through which the information is transmitted (for example, radio, telephone, loudspeaker, person to person); and
5. the antecedents or other circumstances pertinent to the context (for example, time, day, place, past events and experiences, shared beliefs, values and assumptions, a shared linguistic code, etc.) which will affect the speech act.

Each of these elements, then, plays an important role in defining the context and an awareness of them is needed in order to attain full comprehension.

Knowing that these elements pertain to a context is an important aspect in the development of listening tasks for the second language classroom. Further, not only should the tasks bear in mind the context, but also, as Dunkel (1986) states, “...response tasks should be success-oriented and should focus on training [students to listen for information or to be full discourse participants], not on testing listening comprehension”, (p. 104). Thus, a lot of practice is essential before evaluation of this skill can be carried out. Indeed, if we want our students to be able to understand oral language, we must not only provide them with appropriate examples of contextualized speech, but also supply them with sufficient exposure to these contexts as a means of developing proper aural comprehension skills. In order to attain this, two practices should be closely followed.

First, authentic texts should be used whenever possible or, at the very least, contextualized texts, i.e., texts that would occur in real life. This will ensure that the students will listen to language that communicates a message and not just relates the proper linguistic form. For example, discerning the difference between a [p] and a [b] sound from a list of words that may or may not be related is representative of decontextualized language. In addition, this type of activity

serves only to make students realize that there are phonemic differences that can cause problems in comprehension, but serves no communicative intent. If the goal is communication, then the type of text must predicate this notion. What is such a text? For example, if the project under study is that of planning a vacation to a francophone area, students can be asked to listen to weather reports to determine which place has the best weather conditions at the time of travel. This type of activity involves both information-seeking and decision-making processes. Or, students can be asked to listen to a recorded message that relates to arrival and departure times of flights in order to determine if their flight is leaving on time, which ones are delayed and by how long. This kind of activity forces students to attend to certain information, a skill related to selective attention – a metacognitive learning strategy. Therefore, the listening tasks associated with these messages must be purposeful and based on strategies that promote the information-seeking and problem-solving processes.

The second practice relates to teaching students to use learning strategies to discern meaning. Many of these strategies are used naturally in one's first language, such as hypothesizing, predicting and anticipating, but these skills must be brought to a conscious level in a second language classroom, at least in the beginning, in order to develop and enhance aural comprehension. In this regard, one should be aware of the two forms of listening to which a learner can be exposed: 1) **interactive listening**, which involves the listener in active participation with the speaker, which means that the speaker and listener are switching roles continually and are involved in a constant negotiation process within the speech act and 2) **noninteractive listening**, which involves the listener in receiving one-way messages in which information is supplied, such as in the case of listening to flight information, a weather broadcast on the radio, a news broadcast, a television interview in which the listener is a third party, a song, etc. It is this latter form, for the most part, that is the precursory step to the former and, ultimately, the development of oral production skills. In this regard, there are three phases involved in the process for the development of aural comprehension skills, these being: 1) **pre-listening phase**, 2) **actual listening phase** and 3) **post-listening phase**.

The **pre-listening phase** is composed of two parts which relate to skills already used in one's first language: 1) the **anticipation of elements** and 2) the **contextualization** of the situation. Anticipation of elements involves students raising to a conscious level those general elements they have experienced previously in their mother tongue related to a particular context. Contextualization, a complementary activity, takes a particular new situation and analyses discrete aspects relating to such elements as the participants, the relationship between/among participants and so forth, which can employ students' past experiences as a reference point.

This pre-listening phase can be viewed as the “setting of the stage”, since it provides the students with a frame of reference from which to select the

strategies needed to carry out the task. In order to facilitate this process, however, students could be made consciously aware of the kinds of information they may be lacking in the areas of social, cultural and linguistic information which could impede their ability to comprehend the text (Dunkel, 1986). In this case, some preteaching of key concepts may be required as a means of raising to a conscious level what students know and do not know in order to put them at ease with unfamiliar texts.

Generally, there are two kinds of activities that a teacher can use to “set the stage”. Brainstorming is one way in which teachers may make students consciously aware of the anticipatory elements that could be heard in a given context. These brainstorming activities can consist of a review of the kinds of vocabulary items or phrases that one might associate with the context. These lists, written or verbal, can be created either as a group or individually. Further, in the brainstorming activity, students can be asked to ascertain whether or not they believe that the list, either drawn up by the students or provided to them by the teacher, does contain the elements they would anticipate for this particular context. This can be done by either checking off the items prior to the listening activity itself and later verifying them in the listening activity, or a survey of the class can be taken by asking the students to raise their hands if they think a particular element will be heard in that context, and the number of responses tallied and placed on the board to be verified in the listening activity.

A second way in which to “set the stage” is to describe to the students the type of oral text (interactive/noninteractive) that they will be listening to and to ask them to discern the following kinds of information: 1) the kind of relationship(s) that might exist between speakers, if any exists at all, 2) the general kinds of information that they might expect to hear, 3) where they believe this type of text would most likely occur, etc. Once again, the answers given would be verified in the listening phase. This kind of activity, then, raises to a conscious level what students have often already experienced in their first language and demonstrates to them how this knowledge is valuable in the second language classroom as well. The use of pre-listening activities, then, is an important aspect of the development of aural comprehension, since they teach students to anticipate the semantic and linguistic elements that are most often associated with a particular context. The ability to anticipate will develop tolerance of ambiguity and risk-taking behaviours, which is particularly important for all students, especially Beginning students.

The **actual listening activity** consists of two phases: the **verification phase** (the first time students are asked to listen to an aural text) and the **comprehension phase** (the second time students are asked to listen to the same aural text). In the verification phase, students can be asked to do any one of the following kinds of activities: 1) verify the elements they were asked to anticipate in the pre-listening activity, 2) take notes on what they heard, 3) determine where the conversation took place, between whom and when,

4) provide general details or the main idea of what they heard, 5) determine the mood of the speakers, etc. Cultural nuances can also be attended to in the verification stage by asking students to listen for such things as: 1) dialectical variations, 2) changes in intonation which can be related to an expression or word, known or unknown to the students, or 3) listening to two similar conversations presented by two different sets of francophone speakers and having the students determine the linguistic and/or paralinguistic differences that are evident in the dialogue. The goal of this phase is to verify students' hypotheses regarding the text they have listened to in order to develop their ability to anticipate and to use this as a strategy for listening.

In the comprehension phase, students are asked to provide more precise details in order to resolve a problem or meet a communicative need. This phase also provides students with feedback on their general comprehension. The kinds of activities in which students can be asked to participate are: 1) completion exercises in which they are required to use the information given in the text to complete the task, 2) answer, in oral or in written form, questions that relate to the text; however, these questions must go beyond the recall of information, and instead should focus on synthesis-type questions, such as having the students determine what would be the succeeding events based on the information they have at present, or on evaluation-type questions wherein the students are asked to use their past experiences as the criteria and to judge whether or not the passage, as they understood it, was consistent with their own experiences*, 3) give, in oral or written form, a summary of what they heard, 4) fill in a cloze passage based on the aural text, etc. As can be seen by the examples given, the most important aspect of this phase is to provide students with appropriate and sufficient feedback with regard to their ability to comprehend a text so that they can become more confident in the development of their listening abilities. In addition, it is important to note that the activities associated with this phase must be different from those used in either the pre- or post- listening phases.

The final phase is the **post-listening phase**, which consists of tasks that require the students to reinforce what has just been acquired and to relate it to previously learned knowledge while reflecting upon the strategies employed in the pre-listening and listening activities. This is an equally important phase, since it develops the students' ability to take what has been learned and apply it to either a similar or different context (a form of transfer or reinvestment).

Once again, the tasks used in this phase must be different from those given in the pre-listening and listening phases. Further, the kinds of tasks that are related to this phase quite often involve other skills such as an oral production

These are higher-order questions and are used best at the **Intermediate/Advanced levels. Evaluation-type questions can be used at the **Beginning** level but mostly of the Yes/No, True/False nature, since the students at this level will be limited in their language abilities and cognitive maturity may be a factor as well.*

activity, reading and/or written activity or any combination of these skills. The kinds of oral production activities that can be carried out would depend largely on the kind of oral text used; however, the kinds of things which can be done include: oral summaries, classroom discussions or debates on the subject, role-playing or simulations of the situation or interviewing each other as to the kinds of things one would hear in the context presented, followed by a survey of the class results being carried out. In terms of reading comprehension, students can read an article or an interview on the same topic and discuss how two different media address the same subject or students can be asked to research the different ways written texts could convey the same information. In regard to writing, students can be asked to write a written summary of the events from a journalist's perspective, write a character sketch about one of the people involved in the oral text, write a different ending to what they heard and share their endings with the class. A class discussion can arise from this kind of activity. As can be seen, there is a variety of ways in which the post-listening activity can lead to the introduction of another skill, which is, in reality, a transfer (reinvestment) of not only previously learned material, but also of that which was just acquired in the listening activity, bearing in mind the linguistic and cognitive levels of the students.

To understand the above discussion better, an example of an oral text is provided, in addition to examples of how one would go about using the text based on the three phases just presented. The text chosen is noninteractive, since only one-way messages are being conveyed, and reflects the kinds of messages that are presented to airline passengers before take-off. Here is a portion of the text that one might hear, bearing in mind that this text would not be heard in a second language classroom until after the pre-listening activity. Following the text are examples of how it can be used to create aural comprehension activities based on the pre-listening, listening and post-listening processes mentioned above.

CANADIAN AIRLINES INTERNATIONAL FLIGHT SAFETY ANNOUNCEMENTS

Bonjour mesdames et messieurs:

Le vol 1210, vers Montréal, des Lignes aériennes Canadien International décollera bientôt. Nous aimerions vous rappeler que les règlements du gouvernement exigent que tous les bagages soient soigneusement placés dans les compartiments au-dessus de vous ou sous le siège devant vous.

Veuillez vous assurer que votre ceinture de sécurité est bien attachée quand la consigne est allumée. Pour l'attacher, insérez la partie plate en métal dans la boucle. Tirez sur la courroie pour l'ajuster autour de vos hanches. Pour la détacher, relevez la boucle et tirez.

suite...

Avant d'entreprendre ce voyage, nous aimerions attirer votre attention sur certains dispositifs de sécurité.

Ce Boeing 727 est équipé de quatre portes, deux à l'avant et deux à l'arrière. Chaque porte, clairement indiquée par une enseigne, est munie d'une chute d'évacuation. De plus, deux hublots issues de secours sont situés au-dessus des ailes. Nous vous prions de prendre quelques minutes pour situer les deux issues les plus proches de vous.

Si un incident nécessitant l'évacuation de l'avion venait à se produire durant ce vol, veuillez suivre les instructions de votre agent de bord et laisser vos effets personnels...*

**Reprint permission for the above text has been provided by Canadian Airlines International for the sole use within this document and cannot be used in any context other than for the demonstration of an authentic text for the development of aural comprehension.*

Pre-Listening Activities

1. Develop questions based on the five basic elements of context-embeddedness listed on page 47, relating to students' personal experiences on an airplane.
e.g.:
 1. Qui a déjà voyagé en avion?
 2. Écoute-t-on des messages avant que le vol décolle?
 3. Si oui, normalement qui donne ces messages?
 4. Qui doit écouter ces messages?
 5. Est-ce que ces messages passent par les hauts-parleurs?

Students' answers can be recorded on the board as they make a show of hands or they can write their answers on a sheet of paper with one-word responses being accepted. Answers are to be verified in the listening activity.

2. In groups of two, students draw up a list of objects they think might be mentioned in a flight safety announcement. After two minutes, groups share their lists and a class list is created to be verified in the listening activity. Students should be grouped in such a way that those who have never been on a plane are working with those who have.
3. Students provide the flight instructions they think they might hear using imperatives. Students can provide the answers using gestures if they are unable to articulate the message, with the teacher providing the verbal instructions that accompany the gestures. (Remember, we are developing aural comprehension here, not production. Gesturing teaches students to find another way of expressing themselves.)

Listening Activities

1. *Verification* – Students verify elements listed after hearing the safety announcement played a second time.
2. *Comprehension* – Students imagine they are inspectors for Transport Canada. They are to fill in certain details regarding Canadian Airlines' safety announcements to ensure passenger safety. The fill-in activity could look like this:

VÉRIFICATION DES ANNONCES DE SÉCURITÉ

Nom de l'inspecteur: _____

Ligne aérienne: _____

Numéro de vol: _____

Destination: _____

Cocher "oui" si les directives sont mentionnées.

	OUI	NON
1. Placement des bagages	☐	☐
2. Port de la ceinture de sécurité	☐	☐
3. Nombre de portes	☐	☐
4. Directives pour l'évacuation de l'avion	☐	☐
5. Usage de l'oxygène	☐	☐

Students verify their comprehension orally with the rest of the class.

3. *Comprehension* – Students are given written questions or completions which require certain details to be attended to.
 e.g.:
 1. Qui exige le placement des bagages? _____
 2. Où vont les bagages avant le décollage? _____
 3. La consigne est allumée, qu'est-ce qu'on doit attacher? _____.
 4. La partie plate en métal est insérée dans _____.
 5. Les issues de secours sont situées _____ des ailes.

Post-Listening Activities

1. Oral Production Activity

Students prepare an interview between a flight attendant and a journalist explaining the safety precautions used by the airline. Students can invent the name of an airline or use the name of a well-known Canadian or francophone airline. Students present their interviews to the class.

2. Oral Production/Reading Comprehension Activity

With students in pairs, one pair is given one envelope with information and the other is given another envelope. The pairs must match their information in order to create the messages.

Envelope A	Envelope B
- La consigne est allumée,	- Avant le décollage
- placez vos bagages dans les compartiments.	- est équipé de quatre portes.
- Les issues de secours sont situées	- Chaque porte est munie
- Le Boeing 727	- attachez votre ceinture de sécurité.
- d'une chute d'évacuation.	- au-dessus des ailes.

Next they must order the messages to create a brief flight safety announcement. Students may add any other information they may feel is necessary. Students present their announcements orally.

3. Written Expression Activity

Students brainstorm the safety procedures used on an airplane in a group. Students write a brief summary for travellers explaining what kinds of things they need to know about air safety.

As can be seen, each activity has been different, yet the same context has been used, ensuring the recycling of knowledge by providing sufficient exposure and use of the same content in a variety of ways. The three phases, as outlined above, are intended to provide teachers with a framework within which to evolve their own methodology for developing excellent listening skills and strategies that will assist students not only in the classroom but outside its confines as well.

Teachers may find, in the beginning, that it is difficult to determine what kinds of activities they may be able to do with a given oral text using the three-phase process described above. To facilitate the process, Table 7 has been developed as a means of brainstorming the kinds of activities one can do. Teachers will note that the arrows indicate activities that are more difficult in nature as one progresses along the continuum. The horizontal categories represent the "reason for listening", i.e., "what" information-seeking process is the focus, and the vertical categories describe the actual activities that can be carried out, i.e., "how" the information will be obtained. The following table uses the Canadian Airlines activities described previously to demonstrate how the table can be used. A table for classroom use can be found in Appendix A.

TABLE 7
ACTIVITIES FOR AIRLINE SAFETY ANNOUNCEMENTS

Type of Oral Text: Airline Safety Announcement

Reason for Listening Activity (what) (how)	Identification ▶	Orientation (based on contextual elements) ▶	Main Idea Comprehension ▶	Detailed Comprehension ▶	Reinvestment of Knowledge ▶
Limited verbal/ non-verbal (e.g., pantomime, T.P.R., show of hands) ▼	Provide flight instructions using T.P.R./draw objects found on an airplane used in flight announcements	Verify elements listed			
Verification of context (e.g., matching, providing answers, choosing correct answers, etc.) ▼		Ask questions related to past experiences on an airplane			Match information and create safety message
Transfer of details (e.g., cloze exercises, charts, grids, applications, etc.) ▼			Fill in an inspector sheet for adherence to safety rules	Answer written comprehension questions	
Summary of text (oral or written) ▼					Write a summary of safety features for travelers
Duplication of text (e.g., role-playing, dictation, transcription) ▼					Prepare an interview between a flight attendant and a journalist
Extension of text (e.g., oral discussion, debate, written review or article) ▼					

**Adapted from Lund, 1990.*

This table is intended only to assist teachers. The activities described in parentheses are only suggestions and are by no means exhaustive. Teachers are strongly encouraged to use this taxonomic table as a means of exploring the number of ways in which an oral text can be used. In doing so, teachers will see that any given oral text can generate numerous ways in which to develop aural comprehension.

Oral Production

Oral production is developed sequentially in terms of the kinds of texts that are producible by the learner, i.e., from simple messages such as salutations to discourse that involves coherent and cohesive thought, present in such texts as oral presentations or speeches. Oral texts can be of at least four types: prepared or spontaneous, interactive or noninteractive. Each kind of text takes time to develop in the second language classroom and requires different teaching strategies in order to ensure this development.

First and foremost, it is important to discern the different types of oral texts that can be developed. In general, there are two types of texts that exist:

1) **interactive** texts involve at least two or more people who are engaged actively in dialogue with one another; this type of discourse is often typified by spontaneous or unprepared speech, such as conversations or informal debates and 2) **noninteractive** texts, whereby the speaker produces an oral text but does not expect a direct reaction to his/her speech act. This type of discourse is almost always prepared, either fully or partially, and often consists of texts such as announcements, narrations, presentations, speeches, etc. Most often, **prepared** speech consists of the following kinds of characteristics: 1) thoughts are organized and clear and 2) one's argumentation is evident. **Spontaneous** speech is often characterized by hesitations, false starts, long pauses, incomplete thoughts or statements, a lack of coherence in thoughts and statements made, the making of grammatical errors, and the speaker listening to him/herself (self-monitoring) so as to modify the statements that are being made in order to sound intelligible.

Although the two types of oral texts, interactive and noninteractive, have typical characteristics, there is some crossover in terms of the degree of spontaneity or preparation that can take place. For example, if, before making a telephone call to a colleague, you jot down a few points to remind yourself of what you intend to discuss in your conversation, you have demonstrated a degree of preparedness, since the topics of discussion have been established prior to your conversation. However, there is still spontaneity because the exact discourse patterns are unrehearsed. On the other hand, you may have prepared a very detailed speech for a presentation and upon its delivery you find that your audience is not captivated by what you are saying. Consequently, you abandon your speech temporarily and create as you go along. This scenario demonstrates spontaneity in noninteractive discourse. Therefore, the context in which the oral production takes place can be a factor in determining the degree of spontaneity or preparedness of the oral text.

In the past, in the general course of oral language development, the tendency has been to allow students plenty of time to prepare their dialogues, skits, presentations, etc., in order for them to present the best possible product. This teaching strategy has been, and still is, an important aspect of language

development, but its main purpose is to develop students' ability to order their thoughts and choose the correct linguistic expression or grammatical form. These cognitive and metacognitive strategies are important in the preparation of noninteractive texts but do not assist students in making the transition to unprepared texts. Therefore, a special effort must be made in order to develop students' confidence in producing such texts, whether oral or written, which allow them to deploy certain strategies that are for the most part found in unrehearsed speech. These strategies include: self-correction, paraphrasing, refining and clarifying meaning by listening to oneself, negotiating meaning by becoming actively aware or conscious of one's production skills, using circumlocution or asking for help with a word or phrase, even if this occurs in one's first language. In essence, then, it is up to the teacher to assist students in moving away from a dependency on prepared speech to spontaneous discourse, which is more the norm outside the confines of the second language classroom than is prepared speech.

In the classroom, oral production activities will depend upon three factors: 1) the purpose of the oral production, be it experientially-, communicatively- or linguistically-based, 2) the type of production activity that is planned and 3) the linguistic-communicative level of the students. For the most part, **Beginning** level students will need time to prepare their oral production in order to reduce frustration. Nevertheless, the teachers should engage **Beginning** level students in simple spontaneous exchanges so as to develop their confidence in this kind of speech act. **Intermediate** and **Advanced** levels students should be given more opportunities to produce spontaneous speech; however, this will depend largely on the type of oral production activity and its purpose.

When choosing an oral production activity, its purpose will determine the kind of "product" the teacher can expect. For example, if students are given oral drill exercises, such as transformation drills (i.e., exercises that involve students in making linguistic changes in sentences from singular to plural, from one tense to another, from first person to third person, etc.) or completion drills (i.e., exercises in which the students complete the sentence with a word or phrase), the type of "product" is the correct answer, since the focus is on the knowledge and use of the language. Consequently, these types of so-called mechanical activities are not considered to be communicative, since they do not convey messages that are relevant to the learner nor are they a consequence of an information gap (Paulston, 1975).

However, these types of activities do play an important role in the development of the students' linguistic abilities, but teachers must ensure that the pattern exercises they choose for developing certain linguistic structures are in keeping with the context and are relevant to the students' work. For example, if the field of experience is "Food" and you wish to drill the verb "prendre", this should be done in such a way that the verb is contextualized in terms of food and not dealing with any of its other uses. This transfer will come when the context predicates it. Also, when drilling the verb, one must ensure that the type of drill

questions used are within the experiences of the students. For example, if one asks the students: "Que prends-tu pour le dîner quand tu es dans un grand restaurant?", grade four students may have difficulty answering this type of question if they possess limited experience in this area; however, grade ten students may be able to answer more readily since this may well be within their experience. Therefore, it is very important that the type of oral linguistic exercises given to the students take into account context, students' interests, their experiences and maturity.

For an oral production activity to be communicative, it must have the following characteristics: 1) involve the transfer of information that is unknown or not well known to the listener(s), 2) be task-based, i.e., it relates to an activity that occurs in real life, 3) be contextualized, i.e., the speaker has information regarding who the audience is, for what purpose he/she is producing the information, any other circumstances surrounding the production, etc. and 4) be meaningful to the learner, i.e., the activity is relevant to the speakers' age group and life experiences (Tremblay, 1989). In these oral communicative activities, students are required to supply the information that is needed or missing in order to carry out the task, which may be either prepared or unprepared. Communicative activities consist of such techniques/procedures as brainstorming, role-playing, taking surveys, giving directions, games (especially those that are played in real life), impromptu conversations, interviews and so on.

The same types of communicative activities can be done at an experiential level. The difference, however, lies in the fact that now students are making the decisions regarding the linguistic knowledge and skills they will need in order to convey their own intents based on the context. In this sense, the language experience is taking into account the students' experiences and interests so that by carrying out the activity it becomes meaningful and relevant to them. A brainstorming activity will help illustrate how the same technique/procedure can be communicative in one instance and experiential in another.

Brainstorming, when used as a communicative technique, has a very specific purpose. For example, in the field of experience "Food", students could be asked to brainstorm all the food words they know in English which they think may sound the same in French. The teacher supplies the students with the word in French and they verify if they are similar or not. In this case, the students are communicating ideas, but the intent of the activity is very specific, i.e., the students' knowledge is being directed towards the development of a food vocabulary list, based on what they know about food in general. In addition, there is an information gap, since the students are not certain whether the vocabulary they are furnishing exists in French or not; therefore, their hypotheses are being verified and they are bridging the gap.

However, in order to make the same technique experiential, the teacher could ask the students to brainstorm the types of food they would like to eat at their

class picnic. Once the list has been prepared, they could decide who would bring what item to the picnic. In this sense, the activity is experiential in that it is relevant and meaningful to the students, with their interests at the core of the activity. In effect, they are actually participating in making decisions that pertain to them. Essentially, then, the distinguishing factors between a communicative activity and an experiential one are: 1) the limitations placed on the activity, i.e., its purpose, 2) how relevant and meaningful the activity is in terms of the students' interests and maturity and 3) whether or not the students play an active role in the decision-making process.

There are a variety of oral production activities that can be planned which can be used at all language levels (**Beginning**, **Intermediate** or **Advanced**); what will change is the focus of the activity and its complexity. A useful example is a **survey** activity, which often involves the reading comprehension skill, since surveys or questionnaires usually appear in print form. At the **Beginning** level, a check-off format is most appropriate as a means of compiling information, since these surveys will focus mainly on vocabulary use. For example, if the field of study at this level is "Clothing", then the type of survey questions asked would relate to vocabulary use, such as: "Quand il fait chaud, préfères-tu les shorts ou un maillot de bain?" Students would answer the question using a one-word answer that reflects their choice. A full sentence is not necessary, because the purpose of this type of activity is to convey one's message, not supply the correct form. The survey form for this type of activity may look like this.

SONDAGE DES PRÉFÉRENCES

Coche (✓) les réponses de ton partenaire.

1. Garçon ☐
Fille ☐
2. Quand il pleut, portes-tu :
 ...un imperméable? ☐
 ...des bottes en caoutchouc? ☐
 ...un parapluie? ☐
3. Quand il fait chaud, portes-tu :
 ...un maillot de bain? ☐
 ...des shorts? ☐
 ...des jeans? ☐

The same questions can be used with pictures for the vocabulary if the students require a memory aid.

For example:

1. Garçon () ☐

Fille () ☐

2. Quand il pleut (), portes-tu :

...un imperméable ()? ☐

...des bottes en caoutchouc ()? ☐

...un parapluie ()? ☐

etc.

A follow-up to this activity might involve having students summarize the results of the survey orally, followed by a written summary of the results in which the students would copy down the report as a form of guided practice in which knowledge is transferred to the written skill and reinforces what was learned orally.

At the **Intermediate** level, the focus will be more at the sentence level, where students are asked to state their opinions, likes/dislikes, etc., in sentences. Thus, if the field of experience is "Fashion", a survey question at this level may be: "Les fins de semaine, qu'aimes-tu porter?", with a follow-up question such as: "Pourquoi aimes-tu porter ça?" Students are required, then, to substantiate and elaborate on their answers, where they might use complete sentences or other appropriate rejoinders. The survey would be made up of questions relating to other activities that students participate in and the types of clothing they would wear for these occasions. Notes can be jotted down on the survey form as the questions are being asked, replicating an activity done in real life. Once the data are collected, an oral or written class summary can be made, which would be used later on in the unit or project under study.

At the **Advanced** level, surveys can take on the role of determining students' knowledge. At this level, if the field of experience under study is "Living Alone" and the unit or project revolves around the creation of a pamphlet describing the essential aspects of living alone, the types of questions that could be asked would be used to determine what is important to know about living alone. One aspect of living alone is job hunting. Example questions might include: "Imagine qu'un(e) élève aura une interview pour un poste dans un magasin. Il/elle décidera qu'il/elle aura besoin de nouveaux vêtements. Comme tu sais que cette personne a 17 ans, quels conseils lui donnerais-tu pour l'achat des nouveaux vêtements?" or "À ton avis, serait-il possible de dépenser cent dollars pour l'achat d'une bonne variété de vêtements?", "Pourquoi ou pourquoi pas?",

“Ça inclurait quoi?” At this level, then, students are using more sophisticated language in addition to attempting to use information to solve a problem.

More examples of the types of oral production activities which can be used at any level follow; however, they must be adapted to suit the needs of the context and the students' linguistic level. Thus, the descriptions are general in nature and will need to be tailored to the project being developed.

Brainstorming is a cognitive strategy that generally involves the process of generating or creating ideas to resolve a problem. In the second language classroom, we can use this process to generate vocabulary, expressions or, at more advanced linguistic levels, ideas. This type of activity focuses on communicating thoughts, not on linguistic accuracy. Therefore, linguistic errors may be found as a product of this activity and should be accepted accordingly; however, if errors impede total comprehension, then the negotiation of meaning plays a major role here. This kind of activity can be done as an entire class or in small groups of between four to six students, in so-called “buzz sessions”. Students must be reminded that the goal here is the generation of words, expressions or ideas and that all answers should be accepted without criticism. This process can also be used as a pre-production activity.

Role-playing or simulations are oral production activities which are usually based on a listening activity, having exposed previously the students to certain language patterns needed for this activity. At the **Beginning** level, especially, it is advisable to demonstrate or model the process for the students. This can be done by the teacher or through the use of audiotapes or videotaped scenes. In some cases, students can be supplied with cue cards that may present the entire situation with only certain aspects missing, which are then filled in by the students. On the other hand, perhaps just the beginning of the dialogue is supplied and students might be asked to fill in orally the missing information. In another case, cue cards would provide students with information on what they are to talk about. Variations on this process include: partners switching roles, an audience member intervening and giving one of the characters advice on the situation, one participant actually playing a role with the other role being played by an “imaginary” person, requiring the audience to determine what the “imaginary” person is saying, one person playing both roles or various groups replaying the same roles. For students at the **Intermediate/Advanced** levels, role-playing can replicate typical situations, such as purchasing an item in a store or conflict situations such as having students explain to their parents why they are late. This type of activity, then, allows students to recycle knowledge and experiences.

Conversations are similar to role-playing but differ in the sense that they relate more to unprepared discourse and to events that occur more on a daily basis, such as asking some friends about the movie they saw the night before. In order to carry out this type of activity, one should have the students brainstorm,

as a class or in small groups, the kinds of words or expressions and structures they think they will need for the conversation. From there, depending on whether the teacher is dealing with **Beginning**, **Intermediate** or **Advanced** language level students, he/she may wish to give them time to prepare or allow them to carry on an impromptu conversation, the latter assisting students in becoming more independent and confident speakers. Another way in which students can be assisted in creating a directory of expressions is by the teacher providing them with a written text dealing with the topic at hand. Students now search the text, either individually or in small groups, for the expressions or words they feel they will need.

When students present their conversations to the class, those students who make up the audience should be actively engaged in an activity that corresponds to the conversation. Students can be asked to do a listening activity as outlined in the section on aural comprehension or they can be asked to evaluate the conversation (see the section on peer evaluation in the **Student Evaluation Guide**). Above all, it is important to involve students in their peers' oral productions, as this will assist them directly in developing their aural comprehension skills and indirectly in improving their own oral production skills.

Interviews are a variation on conversations but require a preparation phase in which the types of questions that will be asked are mainly predetermined. For **Beginning** level students, the teacher may prepare the sequence of questions or the questions may be decided upon as a class. Such an example is a game called *Social Bingo* (Omaggio, 1986), in which the students attempt to fill in their Bingo cards by interviewing fellow students so as to determine which situation belongs to whom. Then they write the student's name below the situation. The teacher can decide what vertical or horizontal line, the X and so on is to be the winning combination. An example of such a Bingo card follows (on page 63).

At the **Intermediate** or **Advanced** levels, students can be allowed to prepare their questions in advance, in which case they would be creating structured interviews. This preparation process can be done individually, in pairs or in small groups of students (three to four). When the students have decided upon their questions, these can be transferred to cue cards to help facilitate the interview process, which replicates a process that is often used on television. Interviews can also be unstructured, but this is probably best done at the **Advanced** level, since this type of activity will encourage students to be more spontaneous in the use of their knowledge of the language and to choose the best means of expressing themselves. This type of activity mainly requires the use of metacognitive strategies, since students are required to sustain the interview process by choosing the best linguistic expressions, monitoring their speech and self-correcting. This type of interview is used best for gathering general information, since it is more like a conversation than a question-answer session.

LE BINGO SOCIAL

B	I	N	G	O
Quelqu'un qui aime les maths. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les sciences. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les fins de semaine. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les études sociales. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime l'école _____
Quelqu'un qui aime l'anglais. _____	Quelqu'un qui adore la musique. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les ordinateurs. _____	Quelqu'un qui déteste le français. _____	Quelqu'un qui déteste les études sociales. _____
Quelqu'un qui déteste les sciences. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime le français. _____	LIBRE	Quelqu'un qui aime regarder les sports à l'école. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les clubs à l'école. _____
Quelqu'un qui aime le drame. _____	Quelqu'un qui aime les arts plastiques. _____	Quelqu'un qui déteste l'anglais. _____	Quelqu'un qui adore l'éducation physique. _____	Quelqu'un qui ne prend pas le déjeuner à l'école. _____
Quelqu'un qui déteste l'école. _____	Quelqu'un qui est dans un club à l'école. _____	Quelqu'un qui prend le déjeuner à l'école. _____	Quelqu'un qui a son casier en désordre. _____	Quelqu'un qui déteste les ordinateurs. _____

A **debate** is a production activity that requires high levels of language ability and is best done at the **Advanced** level, since students at this level will have had more exposure to the language. Furthermore, this type of activity requires critical thinking skills which are often associated with more mature students. This type of activity can involve two steps: 1) researching the topic and 2) brainstorming prior to the debate. The first step can involve a "reading for information" stage in which students gather data regarding the topic to be discussed, which would include the jotting down of notes which students would use in the debate to support their opinions.

Alternatively, students may wish to interview key resource people who could supply them with information on the topic, in which case they also would be using interview techniques. Students could then be grouped according to their opinions so that, as a group, they can develop a defence of their opinions. Once students have pooled their information, the groups can be divided again so as to carry out a practice session to determine if their defence is solid enough. At the same time, they can determine what appropriate linguistic forms and vocabulary will be needed in order to express their intents best. Once the "mock" debate session has been completed, the second step can take place.

This step involves students brainstorming linguistic items such as “taking the floor formulae”, i.e., expressions needed to agree or disagree, to show objection, to support an idea/opinion, to express an opinion, etc., so that they will have at their disposal the necessary linguistic formulae that will assist them in sustaining a communication. This type of activity also allows for the use of negotiation techniques, which can also be brainstormed so that students have access to ways in which they can clarify another's communicative intent. Once the debate begins, the role of the teacher as an observer is to note frequent errors in communication, which will be discussed at a later date but not during the process. Students not participating in the debate are also observers, but they should be given a task that relates to the debate, such as writing a summary of the key points raised by either side or writing an opinion from the observer's point of view as to which side presented the best argument. As well, the summary can be done orally, followed by a discussion of what types of difficulties the students encountered in presenting their opinions, which takes on the form of analysis and reflection. This activity, then, is probably the most difficult and most challenging for students. Thus, students must be given ample time to prepare properly for this type of task.

The last type of oral production activity to be discussed is the use of games. Games are an excellent means of reviewing linguistic structures or they can serve as information gap activities. Games are highly motivational and students easily become involved in them. Games that are offshoots of well-known games or games that are broadcasted on television are particularly popular. The advantage of creating and using games that are based on these models is that the students already know the rules of the game. Two examples will be given to assist teachers in developing their own games.

“*Jeopardy*” is a well-known television program based on the development of questions that contain the answer in the question formulation. This type of game practices question formats that use forms such as intonation or inversion. The game is based on contextualized categories, from which students must choose a category and the number of points they are going for. For illustrative purposes, the field of experience “Housing” will be used.

First, four categories are chosen and written on the board with the corresponding number of points available as shown below:

Les pièces de la maison	Les activités	Les meubles	Les appareils ménagers/électriques
10	10	10	10
20	20	20	20
30	30	30	30
40	40	40	40
50	50	50	50

Students are then divided into teams and begin the game by making a statement such as: "Les pièces de la maison pour 10 points, s'il vous plaît." The teacher then reads the corresponding problem. These problems can be as simple or as complex as the teacher desires, adjusting them to the students' language and cognitive levels. For example, "C'est un endroit dont tout le monde a besoin le matin. Là, on se brosse les dents, on se rase, on se lave, on prend sa douche, etc." The student responds by asking an appropriate question. For example, "C'est une salle de bain?" or "Est-ce que c'est une salle de bain?" or, if the students are able to use the inversion form, "Est-ce une salle de bain?" If the question is correct the student's team receives the points. Here are some examples for these categories:

Les pièces de la maison

- 10 - C'est l'endroit où on prépare les repas. (La cuisine)
- 20 - On peut y avoir beaucoup d'appareils électriques pour les disques, les films, etc. (La salle de séjour)

Les activités

- 10 - C'est une activité qu'on fait dans la chambre à coucher. (dormir, étudier)
- 20 - C'est ce qu'on fait quand on emploie des livres de recettes. (cuisiner, préparer un repas, faire la cuisine)

Les meubles

- 10 - C'est là où on se couche le soir. (Un lit)
- 20 - C'est un objet absolument nécessaire pour prendre un bain. (Une baignoire)

Les appareils ménagers/électriques

- 10 - On a besoin de cet appareil pour cuire le poulet, un gâteau, etc. (Un four)
- 20 - On a besoin de cet appareil pour sécher le linge. (Une sècheuse)

The game is finished when all the categories have been completed and the points have been awarded. Teachers could encourage students to prepare the definitions in groups so that they are not only practising question formats, but also sentence development (adapted from Galloway, 1990).

Another commonly used game is "*Tic-Tac-Toe*". This game has simple rules and can be used in a number of ways, especially to review vocabulary, expressions and grammatical structures. One way in which this game can be played is to set up the tic-tac-toe on the board, with each square containing a number as shown in the following example:

1	4	7
2	5	8
3	6	9

These numbers correspond to questions or definitions, previously prepared on recipe cards, that the teacher or a student reads to the class. With the class divided into two teams, one team the X's and the other the O's, a member of one of the teams chooses a number and must answer the question or the definition correctly. If the student answers incorrectly, the opposing team can opt to steal the square by answering the question and providing the correct answer. Students are highly motivated by this game, since they know the strategies needed to win at "*Tic-Tac-Toe*".

Information gap games involve students sharing their information in order to solve a problem or a puzzle. One type of information gap exercise is to have two students work together to solve a mysterious coded message in which each student is given a message, but only half of the code. In pairs, students figure out their message. Groups of students are given a number of coded messages that they must share with each other in order to solve the problem, in this case a possible murder. There are fifteen coded messages to this "whodunit", which one may wish to try with a class. For this reason, the coded messages can be found in Appendix A so that they may be photocopied. The answers for the messages will follow, with the solution as well.

This type of activity allows students to exchange ideas freely, while attempting to resolve a problem. Activities of this sort are stimulating, motivating and encourage students to use their linguistic knowledge in a non-threatening atmosphere. Another information gap activity which demonstrates how individual students make choices regarding the rules they must follow at home is included in Appendix A. Students must share their information with another student or other students to see how similar or different their rules are. The same activity can be done again, only this time students create the rules for their parents.

One can see, then, that there are a number of ways in which oral production can be developed. The field of experience and the project will determine the types of

activities that will be employed as will the students' linguistic abilities. Teachers, however, should always keep in mind the students' linguistic ability and cognitive maturity when choosing oral production activities, in addition to the degree of preparedness or spontaneity the activity will require. Oral production activities should encourage students to use their linguistic, socio-linguistic and discourse knowledge to the fullest extent.

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension, like its aural counterpart, listening comprehension, is a receptive skill, which again involves active processing. Efficient readers not only decipher or decode written symbols, but also, and more importantly, interpret and construct meaning from print. In this process, concepts and values are actively experienced by readers first; then these ideas and beliefs are internalized verbally; and lastly, they are read and/or written about by language users. Throughout this process, readers search for all kinds of clues and call upon their resources to assist them in their construction of meaning (e.g., sound-symbol relationships; grammatical, semantic and contextual clues; their background and personal experiential history; the purpose for which they are reading and so forth). In this latter sense, in particular, reading has much in common with listening, though it is more complex, involving the use of more interpreting skills in that it does not benefit from the immediacy of the imparted message usually associated with listening. Reading, too, has primarily a twofold purpose: 1) to participate in discourse and 2) to obtain information (i.e., reading serves a need or a purpose). Thus, the kinds of activities that are used to develop the reading skill must represent this need to read while involving both the problem-solving and information-getting processes.

Reading, therefore, constitutes active participation in discerning or constructing meaning found in print. Of course, the print itself is not the originator of the message. Messages of all kinds that are to be read are produced by someone, i.e., they have an author. Hence, when interpreting written messages, readers need to relate with the author, thereby negotiating with the author his/her intentions, purposes, background and so forth.

Reading with meaning is also contingent upon grasping key contextual clues. Without a context, meaning is difficult to interpret or construct. We are all familiar with instances of reading we have incurred in our own lives, even in the mother tongue, where the words in print could be decoded or deciphered but were not understood because we lacked the background or context-embeddedness with which to connect meaningfully and effectively with the author (e.g., technical manuals, decontextualized instruction sheets or subjects in fields of experience outside our purview). In the second language, special care will need to be taken, in helping learners develop their reading ability, to create context. Here again, it is useful to recall the five basic elements of any context

(Tremblay, 1989. See also the preceding section on Aural Comprehension for further amplification):

1. the participants;
2. the relationship existing between the participants;
3. the communicative intent(s) used for participating in the speech act;
4. the medium through which the information is transmitted (e.g., personal letter, informal message, instruction sheet, novel and so forth); and,
5. the significant background factors pertinent to the context which will affect the speech act.

As in listening, each of these elements plays an important role in defining the context and is needed in order to attain full comprehension of the text being read.

Knowing how important context is for meaningful reading helps us determine the kinds of reading tasks that are appropriate and helpful in developing the reading skill in the second language classroom. As well, we can become more consciously aware of the nature of reading materials we are introducing in class. That is, reading is not done for its own sake; rather, it is done for a purpose.

Essentially, print materials/resources are of two kinds: didactic or authentic documents. Hammerly (1982; 1986) has suggested that didactic materials, which are prepared specifically for second language instructional purposes and with a second language clientele in mind, can be used for intensive reading purposes. In such reading, the ratio of new linguistic elements (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures, etc.) to old/already known is very high. Thus, in using didactic materials, the emphasis is primarily on teaching/learning aspects of the language and less on reading for normal problem-solving or information-getting purposes. It has been suggested, too, that authentic documents, which are not prepared specifically for second language instructional purposes and which normally have a first language clientele in mind, can be used for extensive reading purposes. In this case, the ratio of new linguistic elements to old/already known should be much lower; however, it is anticipated here that readers have had considerable "hands-on" and oral experience with the ideas and are reading now primarily for legitimate problem-solving or information-getting purposes.

Given the importance of context in the making of meaning from print, to which we have alluded above, it is important that reading tasks for the second language classroom focus mainly on reading for these latter purposes. A lot of practice is again essential before evaluation of this skill can be carried out. Therefore, if we want second language learners to be able to understand written

language, we must not only provide them with appropriate examples of contextualized reading materials but also supply them with sufficient exposure to these contexts as a means of developing strong reading comprehension skills. In order to attain this, two key practices should be followed closely: 1) use more authentic reading materials and 2) teach students to use learning strategies to interpret or construct meaning from print.

First, authentic texts are those that would occur in real life (e.g., in telephone messages, grocery lists, poems or application forms) and which convey context-embedded messages. Using such reading materials will ensure that students will read language that communicates a message and not just relates some proper linguistic form. For example, recognizing and being able to decode the sound [o] in a seeded passage that may or may not convey a meaningful message is representative of decontextualized language. Such an activity helps students decipher a phonetic element, a useful sub-skill in reading. However, not going beyond this point and limiting ourselves to such material leads nowhere communicatively. If the goal is communication, then the type of text used should reinforce this notion.

An authentic reading material is one learner's study to find something out. For example, "classified advertisements" in a newspaper might be read over a certain period of time to determine what number and kind of positions require bilingual skills. If travelling to a francophone area, students might read tourist brochures to assist them in making up a list of places they would like to visit. If a controversial issue is being studied in a particular field of experience, students might read representative English- and French-language newspaper editorials and magazine articles to gain and discuss insights they have acquired relative to English- and French-language perspectives on the issue. These kinds of activities force students to attend to certain information, search out context clues, seek patterns and so forth. In the process, they are making informed guesses and testing hypotheses, doing reading of the kind Smith (1984) has referred to as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" in which the reading process goes beyond decoding to include as well the construction of meaning, drawing upon semantic clues, background knowledge, prior experiences, indeed the general culture of the students who are brought to the task of reading comprehension. The reading tasks associated with such passages must be purposeful and are based on strategies that promote the information-getting and problem-solving processes.

The second reading practice involves helping students become better and more effective "guessers" and risk-takers. To achieve effectiveness in these areas, they must acquire and use learning strategies that will assist them in discerning meaning from print. As with listening, many of these strategies, such as hypothesizing, predicting and anticipating, which are used naturally in one's first language, must be brought to a conscious level in a second language classroom in order to develop and enhance reading comprehension. Other strategies, particular to the reading skill only, such as scanning and skimming,

will also need reinforcement. Moreover, where there are background gaps and/or potential cultural miscues, efforts must be made to help learners pick up that which is missing.

Unlike listening, which involves both interactive and noninteractive types (see section on Aural Comprehension), all reading is essentially noninteractive. In this sense, reading is more difficult than listening because readers are always receiving one-way messages in which information is supplied and they have no immediate opportunity for stopping the exchange, negotiating meaning with their writing counterpart or doing perception checks. For this reason, the foundation for reading activities is very important. Three phases are proposed in the process for the development of reading comprehension skills: 1) pre-reading phase, 2) actual reading phase and 3) post-reading phase.

In describing what reading is in the introduction of this section on Reading Comprehension, we have indicated basically three broad stages as articulated in the schema (Figure 8) which follows (the first two of which are of particular importance for Beginning readers in the second language):

FIGURE 8
AN EXPERIENTIAL BASIS AS AN APPROACH TO READING



The **pre-reading phase** involves the first two stages: active/experiential and oral. First and foremost, we cannot assume that students have an adequate or any experiential background with the reading content to be studied and interpreted. In their realm of life experiences, the topic engaged in the reading passage may be novel or, given the changed linguistic-cultural setting, they may have cultural background gaps that might lead them to miscue and, resultingly, misinterpret the passage. Thus, at this phase, it will be important to create or re-create the experience for learners. In this process, students will become involved in actually doing things in a given field of experience. In the course of doing things, context will be created and, as oral language is introduced simultaneously, linguistic sounds, structures and vocabulary pertinent to that field of experience will be acquired. The whole process will involve students in activities like role-playing, simulations or discussions in which note is taken, for example, of the relationship between participants, the

focus or theme, etc. Of course, while not assuming prior experience with the theme under study, it is also possible to draw, if applicable, on the students' past related experiences in their mother tongue. As with the pre-listening phase in aural/oral language development, this pre-reading phase can also be viewed as "setting the stage", since it, too, provides students with a frame of reference from which to select the strategies best suited or needed for carrying out their reading task(s). Here, again, it will be desirable to help make the students consciously aware of the kinds of information they may be lacking in the area of social, cultural and linguistic information which might impede their comprehension of the text being read.

The stage is set in pre-reading in ways quite similar to how it is set in pre-listening: brainstorming and describing the type of written text to be read. In brainstorming, the teacher helps students consciously anticipate elements they might meet in the text. In describing the type of written text, students will come to understand better and be consciously aware of the fact that different texts convey different messages, use different modalities, etc. (e.g., business letters, legends, fairy tales, grocery lists). The use of these pre-reading activities, then, is an important aspect of the development of reading comprehension, since they teach students to anticipate the semantic and linguistic elements that are often associated with a particular context. Again, further tolerance of ambiguity and appropriate risk-taking behaviours are thereby being developed in the students, both of which are important for all second-language students, especially at the **Beginning** level.

The **actual reading activity**, in which students are first dealing with written text, also consists of two phases: the verification phase and the comprehension phase.

In the **verification phase**, the first time students actually encounter the written text, they can be asked to do any one of the following kinds of activities:

- 1) verify the elements they were asked to anticipate in the pre-reading phase,
- 2) take notes on what they are reading (e.g., "guessing" meanings of unknown words on the basis of context clues, similarity of words to their English counterparts, etc.; looking up meanings of unknown words; verifying unknown grammatical points appearing in the text; etc.),
- 3) determine the setting of the reading passage (e.g., where it takes place, who the protagonists are, etc.),
- 4) provide general details or the main idea of what they are reading or
- 5) determine the mood of the passage in terms of narrator, protagonists and so forth encountered in reading the passage.

As well, reading passages often have embedded in them considerable cultural nuances and, at this verification phase, missing information and necessary background elements can be determined. The goal of this phase is to verify students' hypotheses regarding the text they have read in order to develop their ability to anticipate and to use this as a strategy for reading.

In the **comprehension phase**, students are asked to provide more precise details in order to resolve or fulfill a communicative need. This phase also provides students with feedback on their more general reading comprehension. The kinds of activities in which students can be asked to participate in this phase are: 1) completion exercises where they are required to use the information given in the text to complete the task, 2) answer questions that relate to the text, in oral or written form; however, these questions must go beyond the recall of information and instead should focus on synthesis-type questions, such as having the students determine what would be the succeeding events based on the information they have at present, or on evaluation-type questions, wherein the students are asked to use their past experiences as the criteria and are to judge whether or not the passage as they understood it was consistent with their own experiences, 3) give a summary of what they read, in oral or written form, and so forth. As can be seen by the examples given, the most important aspect of this phase is that students are provided with appropriate and sufficient feedback with regard to their ability to comprehend a text so that they can become more confident in the development of their reading abilities. In addition, it is important to note that the activities associated with this phase must be different from those used in either the pre- or post-reading phases.

The final phase is the **post-reading phase**. This consists of tasks that require the students to reinforce what has just been acquired and to relate it to previously learned knowledge, while at the same time reflecting upon the strategies employed in the pre-reading and reading activities. This is also an important phase, since it develops the students' ability to take what has been learned in reading and to apply it to either a similar or different context (a form of transfer or "reinvestment").

The tasks used in this phase must be new tasks not completed elsewhere in the overall reading process, and quite often involve the use of other skills such as related oral production or written expression activities. The kinds of oral and/or written activities that can be carried out would depend largely on the kind of reading text originally introduced. Orally, for example, students might summarize the reading passage, answer comprehension questions or demonstrate in some way their appreciation of the text. Writing activities might include: writing a summary of the reading passage, rewriting the reading giving it a different ending or providing written responses to comprehension questions on the passage. As has been shown in other skill areas, there are a variety of ways in which, at the post-reading phase, reading activities can be combined with, for instance, listening, speaking or writing activities bearing in mind, as well, the linguistic and cognitive levels of the students.

Again, to help understand better the above discussion, we shall illustrate using a sample "authentic" reading passage, the phases, strategies and activities for reading which have just been suggested. Like all reading texts, the one chosen

is “noninteractive” in nature; i.e., the students will need to glean meaning from the text without the benefit of immediate feedback, spontaneous negotiation, frequent perception checking and so forth usually taken for granted in oral discourse. The text is, however, representative of pertinent current reading which students might encounter were they to engage, in or outside the second language classroom, in perusal of authentic French reading materials. In this case, an article has been selected from *Le Franco*, a French-language newspaper published in Alberta, which is a supplementary resource strongly recommended for use in Alberta FSL classrooms (see subsequent section on Types and Suggested Uses of Learning Resources). This article, dated May 24, 1991, provides useful historico-cultural data and is at the same time up-to-date and of immediate interest to learners, with the potential to enhance their civic awareness. Following the text are examples of how it might be used as a catalyst for creating reading comprehension activities based on the pre-reading, reading and post-reading process discussed above.

JOURNÉE DE RECENSEMENT : SOYEZ DU NOMBRE

par Silvie Montier, Edmonton

Plus de trois siècles après le premier recensement effectué en Nouvelle-France, la population canadienne participera le 4 juin de cette année, au 17^e recensement du Canada depuis la Confédération.

C'est à Jean Talon, Grand intendant nommé par le roi de France, que l'on doit, en 1666, le premier recensement au Canada. Limitée à la Nouvelle-France, cette enquête rapporta 3 215 habitants, à l'exclusion des autochtones et des militaires.

Un an plus tard, le premier recensement agricole avait lieu. Mais ce recensement, tout comme le recensement général d'ailleurs, ne se fait alors que de façon précaire et irrégulière. Et ce n'est qu'en 1867 que, par vertu de l'Acte de l'Amérique du Nord britannique, la loi a exigé un recensement à intervalles réguliers de dix années.

L'ampleur du recensement actuel donne à cette enquête un caractère tout à fait unique, puisqu'il constitue la plus vaste enquête menée au pays. À présent conduite une fois tous les cinq ans, cette enquête recueille des renseignements auprès de plus de 26 millions de personnes au sein de près de 10 millions de familles. C'est aussi la seule source d'information sur la population canadienne, ainsi que sur le logement disponible à une échelle aussi vaste que le pays, et aussi restreinte que le quartier d'une petite ville.

L'information recueillie lors de ce recensement, sur les femmes, les hommes, et les enfants résidant au Canada est entièrement confidentielle et permet au gouvernement de déterminer, par exemple, le nombre des [sic] représentants au Parlement, ou encore le besoin de services aux personnes âgées. Une fois compilées, les statistiques sont mises à la disposition du publique [sic], et sont

particulièrement utilisées par les industries qui planifient leurs gammes de produits en fonction de la catégorie des [sic] consommateurs, et par un certain nombre de collectivités qui, ainsi, connaissent par avance les nécessités de transports en commun, de garderies... Et c'est aussi grâce au recensement que les associations canadiennes-françaises peuvent avoir une idée générale sur le nombre d'enfants francophones qu'une école française éventuelle pourrait intéresser.

Les questionnaires de recensement parviendront dans chacun des foyers canadiens durant la dernière semaine de ce mois de mai. De plus, les exploitants agricoles recevront également un questionnaire du recensement de l'agriculture. Révisé durant les cinq dernières années, ce formulaire permet à présent aux membres coexploitants de la famille d'être comptés parmi les agriculteurs. On se souviendra qu'autrefois, seul l'exploitant principal pouvait s'inscrire à titre d'agriculteur, ce qui explique probablement le nombre minable des [sic] agricultrices canadiennes selon les anciennes statistiques.

Les questionnaires de recensement devront être renvoyés dûment complétés le mardi 4 juin.*

**Reprint permission for the above text has been provided by Le Franco for the sole purpose of demonstrating within this document the use of an authentic text for the development of reading comprehension skills in second language learners.*

Pre-Reading Activities

1. Develop questions based on the five basic elements of context-embeddedness listed on page 68, relating to students' personal experiences regarding census-taking.

- e.g.:
1. Qu'est-ce qui a eu lieu le 4 juin 1991?
Qu'est-ce qu'un recensement? As-tu déjà participé à un recensement ou été agent de recensement? Explique.
 2. Est-ce que la participation au recensement canadien est obligatoire pour tous les Canadiens? Quelle est la fréquence de ce recensement?
 3. Pour quelles raisons se sert-on des données recueillies lors du recensement?
 4. Comment est-ce qu'on recueille les données de recensement? Comment les inscrit-on?
 5. Dans l'article ci-dessus, qui paraît dans un journal de langue française publié en Alberta, est-ce que vous pensez que les points présentés par la journaliste sont les mêmes que ceux qui paraîtraient sur le recensement canadien dans un journal canadien de langue anglaise? Quelles sont les différences? Les ressemblances?

The teacher might need to pre-teach some key words (e.g., recensement, à une échelle, etc.). To establish understanding, the taking of a census might, for example, be role-played first in the context of the classroom. Then, in discussing the above questions, students' answers might be recorded on the board or they might write one-word or brief answers on a sheet of paper. Answers are to be verified in the reading phase.

2. Given that they will be reading about the Canadian census, students will be asked, perhaps in groups of two, to draw up a list of expected information items they might encounter in a newspaper article dealing with this topic. Subsequently, groups share their lists and a class list is created to be verified in the actual reading activity. Students should be grouped in such a way that at least someone in each group has had some prior experience or has a clear understanding relative to a census.
3. As it is desirable that an oral activity precede written/reading activities, students might be introduced to a recorded radio or television announcement dealing with the Canadian census, going through pre-listening and listening activities relative to the census and, ultimately, reading this article. Oral texts might be encountered in both English- and French-language versions to determine to what degree the sub-texts are the same or different.
4. Students might be asked to look at and make sense of the title in addition to making reasoned guesses as to what the article is dealing with.
5. In a similar vein, even **Beginning** level students might be asked to find words they recognize in the text which are similar to English words they know (i.e., cognates) or to locate multiple instances of a word used in different ways in the text (e.g., recueillir).

Reading Activities

1. *Verification* – Students verify elements listed while actually reading the newspaper article dealing with the Canadian census.
2. *Comprehension* – Students imagine they might be involved one day as Canadian census agents. In reading the preceding article on the census, they are to fill in reasons why a census is taken so that, as they go door-to-door in the future with census materials, they feel comfortable in giving residents answers relative to the purposes of census-taking and the necessity of residents' participation.

POURQUOI IL FAUT «ÊTRE DU NOMBRE»

Cocher oui ou non selon le cas :

	OUI	NON
1. Le recensement constitue la plus grande consultation du gouvernement canadien auprès du peuple canadien.	☐	☐
2. L'information individuelle partagée dans un recensement fait partie du domaine public.	☐	☐
3. Le nombre de députés fédéraux à faire élire au Parlement canadien est déterminé à partir des données recueillies lors du recensement canadien.	☐	☐
4. Les recensements canadiens se font aujourd'hui tous les cinq ans.	☐	☐
5. La mise en marché et le marketing de produits canadiens se font à l'aide de renseignements recueillis lors des recensements.	☐	☐
3. <i>Comprehension</i> – Students answer questions, orally or in writing, whereby they indicate the degree to which they have grasped significant details in the reading passage.		
e.g.:		
1. Qui exige qu'on participe au recensement canadien?		
2. Combien de familles canadiennes participent au recensement?		
3. Que sont les origines du recensement canadien?		
4. Qu'est-ce que le recensement canadien peut contribuer aux écoles francophones du Canada?		
5. Comment se sert-on des statistiques compilées à un recensement?		

Post-Reading Activities

1. Listening Comprehension Activity

It has already been suggested that listening to an announcement on the Canadian census could serve as a useful pre-reading activity. As well, such an activity might be used as a post-reading activity. In this case, students might compare the types of information conveyed orally and in print to determine commonalities and differences.

2. Oral Production Activity

Students might play the role of a census agent and of a Canadian resident-homeowner interacting at the door of a Canadian home. A scenario which might be developed might include a resident who is irate that the government is always coming after him/her to fill in more forms and is, therefore, unwilling to comply. The census agent, while remaining diplomatic, must convince the resident of the necessity of his/her participation in the census.

3. Written Expression Activity

Students might be asked to write a brief report, in French, outlining a rationale for census-taking and participation on the part of all Canadians in a national census.

Throughout the reading process, then, different activities are used in each phase, yet the same context or field of experience transcends all the activities. Knowledge is continually recycled orally and in written form, thereby providing sufficient exposure and using the original reading content in a variety of ways. It is proposed, then, that teachers approaching reading comprehension using the three phases mentioned above, or an adaptation of the above, in keeping with one's own personal and evolving teaching style, will be able to help their students develop excellent reading skills and strategies that will assist them both inside and outside the classroom.

Written Expression

Written expression is a productive skill since it requires output on the part of the writer in a communicative exchange. Like its oral production counterpart, written expression is developed sequentially in terms of the kinds of texts to be produced by the learner; i.e., from copying and formulating simple phrases and sentences to drafting autonomous written works involving the expression of coherent and cohesive thought which is present in such texts as formal speeches and academic compositions, essays and treatises. Written texts can be of at least four types: prepared or spontaneous, interactive or noninteractive. Each will be developed differently in the second language classroom.

To begin, it is essential to discriminate among the different types of written texts that can be developed. As with oral language, there are also two main types of written texts that exist: 1) interactive texts, which involve at least two people who are engaged actively in written communication with each other; this type of written discourse is often typified by spontaneous or unprepared texts, such as two-person journals or familiar letters and 2) noninteractive texts, wherein the writer produces a written text but does not expect a direct reaction to his/her written discourse. This type of writing is almost always prepared,

either fully or partially, followed usually by several written drafts, editing and rewriting. This process often consists of writing for publication (books, articles, poems, etc.) or for academic purposes (composition, term papers, book reports, etc.). Most often, prepared writing has the following kinds of characteristics: 1) thoughts are organized and clear, 2) incorrect words or expressions are rare and 3) a logical ordering of one's argumentation is evident. Spontaneous writing, on the other hand, is often characterized by point form only, incomplete sentences, more errors than would ordinarily be tolerated in more formal prepared writing, with overt evidence of self-monitoring as some words are slashed and replaced with others and so forth.

While interactive/noninteractive types of written text have typical characteristics, there may be crossover to some degree between the two. For example, in an important or very meaningful letter or card being sent to a friend, in what would ordinarily be spontaneous written communication, there may be ideas jotted down beforehand or a first draft made before writing the version to be sent out, which still may include some unprepared elements. Likewise, a formal written submission, ordinarily well prepared, may undergo some quick final revisions just before being handed in or sent out. Therefore, the context and purpose of a written communication may be a factor in determining the degree of spontaneity or preparedness of a written text.

Written expression, it is generally expected, will be more prepared and, therefore, more precise and exact than oral production. This is so because all writing, even so-called spontaneous written expression, affords the learner the opportunity to pause and reflect, at least somewhat, before producing his/her written discourse. As well, writing which was viewed in the past mainly in product terms, is seen more and more today in process terms; that is, the eventual product is only one step, albeit a final one, in an overall process involving an experiential activity with the subject being written about, the possibility of oral exploration of the topic, followed by tentative first drafts written, then refined and rewritten and eventually producing a final written product. It is up to the teacher to orchestrate activities so that a sequence along these lines can be carried out in class and in turn learners will become motivated and come to view their writing in similar process terms.

In the classroom, written expression activities will depend upon three factors: 1) the purpose of the written expression, be it experientially-, communicatively- or linguistically-based, 2) the type of written expression activity that is planned and 3) the linguistic-communicative level of the students. **Beginning** level students, generally, will engage more in preparation-type writing activities, such as copying and simple dictées, as they develop their grammatical orthography. As well, they can begin collective writing activities, such as contributing to the writing of a classroom journal. **Intermediate** and **Advanced** levels students will be given more opportunities to do more refined writing with products reflective of multiple drafts, a process in which greater precision of expression has been achieved gradually.

When choosing a written production activity, its purpose will determine the kind of “product” the teacher can expect. If, for example, the written activity is essentially some form of grammar drill, then the type of “product” to be expected is, of course, the grammatically accurate answer.

These types of written activities are not, however, considered communicative, since they do not convey messages that are relevant to the learner nor are they a consequence of an information gap.

However, these types of written activities, just like their oral counterparts, do play an important role in the development of the students' linguistic abilities, but teachers must ensure again that the pattern or mechanical exercises they choose for developing certain linguistic structures are genuinely in keeping with the context being considered and are relevant to the students' life (see treatment of the example of the field of experience “Food” and the verb “prendre” on pages 57-58 in the earlier section on Oral Production). Similarly, in the context of holidays/celebrations, birthdays in particular, in which the use of the verbs “être” and “avoir” are to be learned/reviewed, questions might be asked, such as: “Quand est la fête de ta sœur?” and “Quel âge a-t-elle?”, both of which are within the range of students' general life experiences and in which, in writing their responses, their use of the verbs “être” and “avoir” is both contextualized and reinforced. On the other hand, asking Grade four students, for instance, a question such as: “Quelles caractéristiques a le temps des fêtes dans le Midi de la France?” is normally beyond the students' life experiences, irrelevant in the main and unlikely to provide them a satisfactory opportunity for written practice in French. Therefore, written linguistic exercises should always be context-embedded and relevant to the students in terms of their interests, experiences and maturity.

The purpose of a written activity can also determine whether or not it is intended as a communicative activity. Again, for a written “product” to be deemed communicative, it must essentially have all the characteristics of a communicative activity which were alluded to earlier (Tremblay, 1989). In written communicative activities, students are required to supply needed or missing information in order to complete their writing task. Communicative writing activities consist of such task completions as applying in writing for a job, addressing a business or friendly letter, drawing up a grocery list or jotting down a telephone message. In the case of the grocery list, for instance, the teacher might suggest that, were the class to go on a group picnic, there are several grocery items that would need to be picked up. He/she might have students brainstorm collectively a couple of items, which could be recorded on the board. Students could then be asked to draft, individually in writing, the rest of a grocery list they envisage for such an event. All ideas might be shared subsequently and preferences compared, in smaller groups or pairs engaged in related oral exchanges. This kind of activity promotes an interactive exchange between writing and oral production activities. To introduce students in a preliminary way to peer editing, they might be asked to study one another's lists

and correct any spelling errors. This kind of activity allows students to use their linguistic knowledge in a given context and, at the same time, orients students attitudinally to view all writing in a process fashion.

As noted earlier, activities may be either communicative or fully communicative and experiential in nature. In the case of written expression, techniques/procedures very similar to those discussed when addressing other skill areas can be employed: individual brainstorming of responses in writing, simulating a job application, writing survey responses, etc. However, in writing too, these techniques/procedures may be used as communicative or as communicative and experiential activities.

In simulating the filling-out of a job application, for instance, a communicative technique might require students to write a list of jobs for which they might apply for summer employment. They may or may not know all the appropriate terms in French, in which case they might sometimes guess, refer to a French or bilingual dictionary or do checks with their classmates or teacher. In this case, ideas are of course being communicated in French but the intent of the activity is very specific; i.e., the students' knowledge is being directed towards the development of a work opportunities or vocational vocabulary list, based on what they know in general about the field of experience, in this case being the "World of Work". In addition, there is an information gap because the students are not always sure of the appropriate terms, are guessing about job titles in context and are testing and verifying hypotheses as they work towards bridging the gap.

The job application scenario can be made truly experiential, however, if students jot down, for example, their own job preferences for summer employment. The vocabulary being developed now is linked to and controlled by their own experiences and interests. Having created a short list, they could now outline in a résumé or series of résumés what qualities or background experiences they have which make them particularly suited for "such-and-such" a job.

At this point in the draft stage, key vocabulary that students may be lacking might be taught (e.g., business letters, unlike friendly letters, delete *Cher/Chère* and *Mon cher/Ma chère* and begin directly with *Monsieur X* or *Madame Y*; in addition, they end with a more formal flourish than students are familiar with in English, as in for example: "*Je vous prie d'agréer, cher/chère Monsieur/Madame X/Y, l'expression de mes salutations distinguées*", after which the letter-writer signs his/her name). Initial drafts might also be shared in pairs or small groups, critiqued constructively, redrafted, handed in to the teacher for a more constructive critique and eventually drawn up in the form of more formal job application letters.

In this way, a focus on language reinforces the initial experiential activity. The experiences generated by the students can be linked back to and integrated with their real-life pursuits and interests in which the students themselves play key decision-making roles.

Numerous written expression activities can be planned which can be used at all levels (**Beginning, Intermediate or Advanced**). What will change is the focus of the activity and its complexity. As well, written expression activities can be viewed as being sequential to, for example, oral production activities or as post-listening or post-reading activities. In this sense, as has been illustrated above, written work is not done in isolation, but rather integrated with all the language skill areas. As well, with writing as with listening and reading, three broad phases are proposed for the development of written expression skills: 1) pre-writing phase, 2) writing phase and 3) rewriting phase. This proposal is very much in keeping with the view of writing as a process more so than a product activity.

In writing as with reading, the **pre-writing phase** involves engagement in active/experiential and oral preparatory or background activities before embarking on formal written activities. This “setting the stage” phase is similar for writing. It should be noted that integrative second language teaching practitioners are encouraged to revisit how it is suggested this be done, for example, in the preceding listening and/or reading sections of this document.

For pre-writing in particular, numerous activities are suggested, which may be more or less appropriate for given levels of cognitive and/or linguistic maturity, topic/theme under study and so forth. One pre-writing activity for all levels, for instance, involves reading materials germane to the subject about which students will also be writing. In this vein, Krashen (1982) espouses the notions of comprehensible input and of competent writing being attained through extensive reading accompanied by writing. Put another way, modelling of good writing, in terms of linguistic accuracy, logical organization and presentation of ideas, and creativity or originality of expression, can be found in selected readings, appropriate to the students' communicative developmental level, to which they might be introduced in the guise of an integrative or pre-writing activity. Research cited by Krashen (1982) confirms intuitions one might have that engaging in quality reading in a given language has great influence ultimately on the effectiveness, richness and variety of our written expression.

In addition, pre-writing activities are intended generally to help students start their papers. At this point, it is useful to recall that, while written texts may be prepared or spontaneous and interactive or noninteractive, most of our writing, in real-life situations, is judged on the grounds that it is finished, well articulated and polished. The “one-shot”, “first-and-last draft” attitude towards written expression is that of the person who views writing only in product terms, not realizing that most writing is a process, based on initial “doodling” and playing with an idea(s), putting down a first draft, reworking it and

reworking it perhaps again and again until positing a final version for whatever its communicative purpose might be. This does not mean that students need to be engaged solely in multiple draft type of writing. Rather, students should be given opportunities to engage in some spontaneous interactive written expression activities of the following types: telephone messages, grocery lists, reminder messages and so forth. In these kinds of writing, as in unrehearsed oral production, tolerance of error and ambiguity or want of precision is much greater. For our purposes here, though, we shall focus mainly on more formal, prepared, noninteractive types of writing, which we might refer to as forms of composition. And indeed, as students refine their written expression in these modes, this writing practice will inform and enhance their other more spontaneous written expression.

In helping students start their written papers or compositions, then, it will be important for them to understand whether they are engaging in descriptive, narrative, expository or analytical-argumentative written discourse. The purpose of our writing tends to shape and define the nature of its expression. Pre-writing activities might include: 1) brainstorming ideas involved with a writing topic, 2) helping students realize what might be included in their written expression, 3) helping students organize their ideas and working out rhetorical problems, 4) reviewing or providing pertinent vocabulary, 5) writing journals, 6) meditating/imaging, 7) making analogies or 8) freewriting (brainstorming on paper). Journals, for example, can be an ongoing means of dialogue between students and teachers. In keeping with and adapting a suggestion made by Magnan (1985), one might use tasks associated with lower communicative competency levels as excellent pre-writing steps for writing tasks at the next higher level; for example, students list objects in the classroom at the **Beginning** level to prepare to describe their classroom at a higher level(s). Meditating or imaging can be related to semantic mapping (Schultz, 1991), wherein a theme is selected and students are asked for their ideas (i.e., brainstorming, with the instructor/facilitator acting as a recording secretary at the blackboard or on an overhead transparency). Then, students are invited to connect or “map” their ideas by drawing lines and arrows to form idea clusters. During this post-brainstorming stage, any ideas that are irrelevant or off-topic may be eliminated. It is essentially at this stage in pre-writing that imaging or visualizing (Emig, 1978; Barnett, 1989) takes place; i.e., students actually “see” their ideas in terms of relationships relative to a given theme or field of experience and perceive the organizational patterns that might form the basis for a draft written version of their ideas as a coherent whole, thereby also enhancing their overall cognitive development. Finally, making analogies might include: 1) comparing and contrasting how a subject might be treated in a written as opposed to an oral presentation, 2) contrasting how two different authors deal with a similar subject or 3) having read a narration written from a particular perspective, subsequently brainstorming/freewriting how it might be narrated from an alternative perspective.

These pre-writing activities, as demonstrated above, interact continuously with listening, speaking and/or reading activities. As well, they lay the foundation or prepare the way for actual writing and subsequent rewriting activities.

Revisiting the example of the summer job application letter, in an integrated unit on the "World of Work", numerous pre-writing activities are possible to focus the students' attention. The teacher might have the students brainstorm initially, orally, some of the kinds of summer jobs in which they believe they would like to work. Having done so, a job area that a significant number of students are interested in might then be selected for amplification. For instance, students might be asked to jot down quickly on paper, in French, as many as possible personal qualities/experiences that they have which they think might help them get the job in question. At this stage, questions of vocabulary can be dealt with, as they are of immediate interest and so highly relevant. As well, in a subsequent oral discussion, in which their ideas are shared, the students might be asked how, in an oral interview, they would deal similarly or differently with key points they might wish to bring up in their written letter of application. Before embarking on their first draft, idea clusters might also be noted so that, for purposes of sequence and organization, the students are helped to put their ideas together reasonably coherently right from the start.

In a second language program in which written expression is viewed more in process than strictly product terms and as being intended for communication, which is representative of the diverse activities involved in putting thoughts on paper, it can be noted that the actual writing phase consists essentially of the drawing up of a number of written drafts. This view sees effective written expression as an interaction among three entities: the writer, the text and the reader (Osterholm, 1986, p. 119).

Writing as a process, then, implies understanding written expression as being comprised of a series of drafts. Having engaged in selected appropriate pre-writing activities, illustrative written activities might include focusing, in a series of drafts, on such concerns as: 1) making ongoing decisions about word choice, syntax, rhetorical style and organization, 2) reviewing what has been written and anticipating and rehearsing what comes next, 3) tinkering and reformulating and 4) stopping and reflecting on what it is that one is producing in written form (Cooper, 1975). Dvorak (1986), Krashen (1982) and Zamel (1983) are among a large group of researchers looking into what qualities and practices characterize skilled writers' ability in expressing themselves on paper in either their first or second language. Consistently, it is seen that persons who are more effective in their written communication demonstrate behaviours such as the following: 1) they do more planning, rescanning and revising than do poor writers, 2) they deal more with substance, investigating and explaining their ideas before getting bogged down with concerns about grammatical accuracy or finding just-the-right word and 3) they understand and accept that writing several drafts is important and not threatening or demeaning.

Writing is, of course, for a purpose. Activities might include: book reports, job applications, descriptive exercises, friendly or business letters and so forth. Reasons for writing abound; classroom writing activities need only be drawn from real-life situations in which one writes. This constitutes essentially the content of written expression. Of course, because filling in missing words and adding on word endings, for instance, are not writing activities in which one normally engages in real life, these would not be representative written expression activities in which to have students engage in writing for communicative/experiential purposes.

As well, beyond content, what needs to shift more is our philosophical stance and that of our students relative to writing, if writing-as-process is to work. This implies changing our ways of viewing the roles of the writer, the text and the reader.

The writer is one who becomes more of an experiential researcher/investigator, risk-taker and experimenter. He/she sees the role of the writer as being more one of analysing, interpreting and expressing him/herself than of the grammarian, orthographer and fount of dictionary knowledge. Attention to fine-tuned detail becomes secondary to communicating a coherent message. As well, such students/writers understand the importance of accepting an imperfect formulation of an idea or phrase in order to proceed with the composing process, what Flower (1985) calls "satisficing", accepting as well that they will, in subsequent drafts, refine and hone their written performance. But such change in the attitude of students-as-writers will not come about easily or quickly. As Barnett (1980) points out: "Experience [with transition to] this system has shown, not surprisingly, that many students at first submit as their second versions little more than recopied rough drafts, whether because of previous training, laziness or misunderstanding" (p. 37).

The role of the text, too, is understood differently. While there is a legalistic convention that what is put in print is immutable, the view in writing-as-process is that texts are versions or drafts, indeed successive approximations, of what will ultimately appear as a final version of a given act of written expression/communication. Consequently, texts are to be played with, experimented with, revisited, reconsidered and rewritten from one perspective and then from another or others, and seen as tentative products subject to continual revision and rewriting.

The reader, too, whether teacher, peer or the writer him/herself will undergo a change of role in a second language program when the focus is on writing-as-process. To be philosophically consistent and facilitative with regard to the above roles, the reader should become more engaged with the writer's textual message. Indeed, given the teacher's/reader's assumed fluency, for example, he/she is likely perpetuating the writers' tendency to focus almost exclusively on achieving accuracy by providing them feedback on surface-level errors in form only. Instead he/she should go beyond form so as to advise writers in

meaningful ways, for example, about a confused presentation or a convoluted organization of ideas. As well, first and early drafts should contain feedback appropriate to drafts; only final versions should be evaluated summatively. Reacting to students' ideas also has positive side effects: 1) it strengthens and affirms their writing skills, thereby empowering them as writers, 2) it encourages them to see others interested and challenged by their writing and 3) it increases their willingness to engage in legitimate self-editing in a series of written drafts.

Again, using the example of the summer job letter, students might be asked, after writing their original drafts, to share them in groups of two with one another for the purpose of obtaining constructive criticism. Alternatively, the teacher, on a rotating basis, might select one student's anonymous draft, put it on a transparency and focus, with the whole class, on one or two aspects only, e.g., sequencing and organization of ideas, creativity and emphasis. Students might then be invited to keep the first and subsequent drafts of their letters in a portfolio until they are ready to submit a final version, which they would be prepared to send out as the job application letter. Early, later and final versions of their own letters of job application might be compared and discussed in class. More ideas on ways to evaluate student writing, in keeping with the view of writing-as-process, are found throughout the **Student Evaluation Guide**.

The **rewriting phase** has as its "raison d'être" the drafting of a final version of written expression for a given communicative purpose. At this stage, the writer reflects on the finished piece and makes any final revisions deemed necessary. Generally, at this point, it is important that the written work be responded to (in the case of, for instance, letters or journals), posted (in the case of book reports or essays, for example) or published (in a classroom book of poetry or other readings, for instance). In the case of the letters of job applications, the teacher might endeavour to find a francophone entrepreneur or business person who might react briefly to the letters or the teacher could do this him/herself. The reaction here should centre on the likelihood of such a letter attaining its intended purpose, i.e., getting a job, and why it might or might not be successful.

The writing process is extensive and complex. It can and should build on the other skill areas: aural comprehension, oral production and reading comprehension. If viewed and effectively dealt with as a process, written expression activities (pre-writing, writing and rewriting) can become meaningful and significant adjuncts to the overall cognitive and linguistic development of students.

Learning Strategies

In the section on the Components of the Program of Studies, general language education was defined and its application illustrated in terms of learning strategies. This particular section also provided teachers with a number of examples of the kinds of strategies that can be deployed in the cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive domains. Further, as has been seen in the discussions of the various language skill areas, learning strategies play a major role in the acquisition of these skills. The purpose of this section, however, is not to reiterate what has been discussed previously, but rather, to describe a few activities, other than those mentioned in other parts of the **Teacher Resource Manual**, which deploy strategies that enhance the acquisition of a second language. In addition, teachers are encouraged to read Oxford's (1990) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know* for an abundance of practical activities relating to both strategy recognition and strategy application.

In daily classroom teaching, teachers will note that students are, for the most part, unaware of the fact that they are using strategies to either “learn” something or “do” something. Oxford (1990) suggests that students should be made consciously aware of this fact in order to enhance their learning and use of the target language. A commercial resource “Élans – Unité Zéro” (Centre Éducatif et Culturel, inc.) has been developed which actually teaches students how strategies from their first language can be used to comprehend a second language. The essence of these activities revolves around using texts in the students' first language and asking them to think about the kinds of things they are doing in order to comprehend either auditory or written texts. Students then work in groups to see how others attack the same texts so as to become aware of other “ways”, i.e., strategies, which their peers are using. By raising to a conscious level the strategies students are using, they will come to realize that learning a second language is not so difficult after all; there is a key.

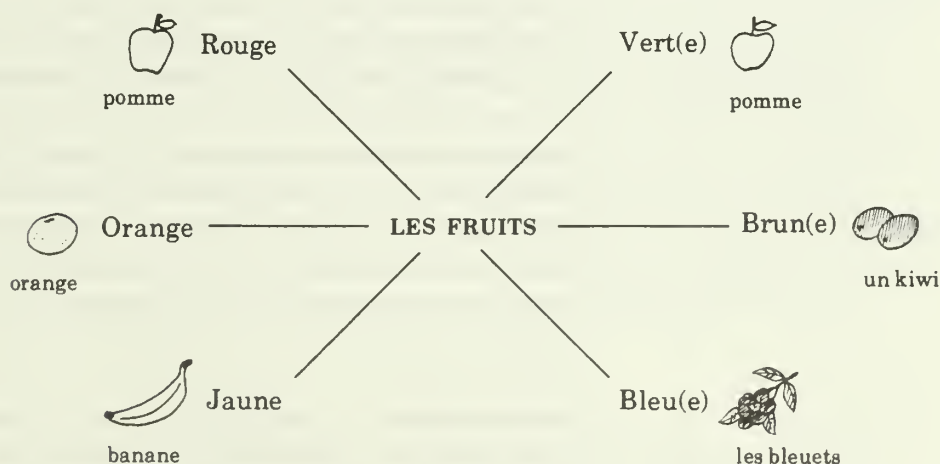
An activity that teachers may wish to do with their students is the following. Teachers might find an auditory or written text in the students' first language that is well beyond their realm of knowledge and their aural and/or reading comprehension level, such as a highly sophisticated chemistry article. The students would be required to listen to or read a portion of the text and to write down briefly what they think the article was about. Then they would be asked to reflect upon the kinds of things they did in order to make sense of the text, simultaneously writing them down as this reflection process is taking place. All students' answers would be placed on the board. They would be categorized and then named or vice versa. This naming process would include such strategies as hypothesizing, guessing, skimming, scanning, taking notes and so on. The result of this categorization and naming process is that students now share a common language when discussing strategy use. Furthermore, it allows them to know for themselves what strategies they are deploying when dealing with a comprehension or production activity.

To demonstrate further the use of strategies, a second language text, preferably a simple but authentic text, is now used. The students go through the same process as indicated above and once again attempt to make sense of the text. Using the strategy list developed for their first language, they can check and verify which strategies are the same and which ones are different. This kind of experience will not only raise to a conscious level what students are doing when they are “learning”, but will make them aware of “what” they are doing in order to deal with what they perceive to be the unknown and the unfamiliar. Soon they will realize that learning a second language is no different from learning their first language. The following activities, which will be discussed, illustrate this notion.

One type of cognitive activity that is being used in other areas of study besides second language is **semantic mapping** which is sometimes referred to as “webbing”. This activity involves brainstorming ideas and making logical connections between words or phrases. For a second language classroom, this is an excellent means of building students' active and passive vocabulary while providing them with a means of visualizing this vocabulary, since drawings or webs between words or phrases are often used so that these words or phrases may be stored visually in long-term memory.

At the **Beginning** level this type of activity can be used to develop vocabulary. For example, in the field of experience “Food”, the centre of the map can be **les fruits** and the six spokes coming out of the centre could refer to fruit colors, in which case it is the students' task to categorize the fruits that they know according to their colour. This semantic map could look like Figure 9 below.

FIGURE 9
VOCABULARY BUILDING SEMANTIC MAP



As shown in Figure 9, the map can be filled out using the printed words or drawings or a combination of the two.

At the **Intermediate** or **Advanced** levels, semantic maps can be used to brainstorm ideas or key phrases that may be needed for the preparation of a questionnaire or a debate, for example.

Another type of activity that etches into memory vocabulary that is being taught is the **Total Physical Response (T.P.R.)** technique. This type of activity involves students physically, through actions or gestures, to store certain linguistic expressions in memory. Charades can be considered as another form of T.P.R., since signs and/or symbols are used to define the meaning of something. The essence of these activities, then, is to have students physically “act out” the expression(s) being taught or reviewed. By actively participating in the acquisition of the linguistic expressions, the students are focussing on and relating the meaning to an action. Activities of this sort cater specifically to those types of students whose learning preference is kinesthetic; however, for other students, whose preference for learning may be visual or auditory, kinesthetic activities provide them with a different modality for learning. Furthermore, these techniques are highly motivating and from the students' perspective are considered “fun”. Consequently, they are not cognizant of the fact that they are deploying and applying strategies to their acquisition and retention of the language; thus, learning is viewed as less tedious.

Another use of kinesthetic learning is **Readers' Theatre**, which combines the oral reading of a text with students taking active roles in the narration; i.e., an unscripted text now becomes scripted in that the narrator directs fellow students as they pantomime the actions described in the text being read aloud. In addition, these students, now “actors”, must follow their own texts, since they are responsible for any dialogue that may be found in the text. These dialogues are now read by the “actors” as though they were engaging in a conversation. Thus, this type of activity encourages the practice of sound-symbol recognition as well as the association of linguistic expressions to physical movement. Further, Readers' Theatre, a form of role-playing, can also assist teachers in teaching students to use the paralinguistic features which accompany many speech acts, such as social distance, silence, pausing and so on – teaching aspects which quite often cause teachers great difficulty. For the students, Readers' Theatre also assists them in gaining confidence in their ability to read the language and promotes risk-taking behaviour.

Another activity that can assist students in taking risks in reading the target language is **jigsaw reading**. This type of activity is communicative in nature, since it involves students working in pairs or teams to recreate the text as it would have appeared originally. This activity requires the original text to be split up. This can be accomplished in a number of ways. For example, for a full article, separate paragraphs can be split so that teams of students recreate a paragraph. Once all the groups have completed their paragraphs, as a class

activity the paragraphs are organized according to how the students believe the text was written. Then their version is verified against the original. Subsequently, students are asked to evaluate their success and discuss any differences that may exist between the two texts. In this way, students become aware of text cohesion and coherence. As a variation, titles from newspaper articles can be split from the articles themselves and students must find the appropriate title for the text. Cartoons can have their captions removed and students must match the text with the cartoon. These types of tasks, amongst others, then, require students to make logical links between text and what they know about different text genre, which inductively teaches students coherence of thought and cohesion of text.

Another activity that can assist students in developing their memory and recall, in addition to cohesion of text, is the **creation and retelling of a story**. This activity is composed of five stages. The first stage involves the use of picture cards in which students, in groups of four, are each dealt a picture. Students show their cards to one another, one at a time, with each making up a sentence based on the picture on his/her card, but linking it to the previous student's statement. This continues until all four students have presented their sentences. Students practice the story that has now been created a couple of times. Students are not allowed to write down the story, since the purpose of the activity is to develop memory recall. Students are to be told, however, that they must memorize the story as it is to be retold to the class later on. The second stage involves students in telling their story to new group members. This is achieved by numbering off the students, i.e., students become either a number one, two, three or four. Then students are instructed to move. Number Ones stay at their original spot and number Twos, Threes and Fours all move to the next table. Once all the students are in place, the original number Ones tell their group's story. In stage three, number Twos remain at the table and number Ones, Threes and Fours move, now requiring the number Twos to retell their group's story. In stage four, the same procedure is employed, only this time the number Threes retell the story. Finally, in stage five, the number Fours remain at the table and the original number Ones, Twos and Threes return. The number Fours must retell the story of their original group. The other members must verify and check to see if any changes may have occurred, since they first created the story. The purpose of this activity, then, is to illustrate to students how time can change a story from its original state. This is an excellent activity to carry out, especially when teaching students about fairy tales, legends and the use of oral storytelling in the medieval ages, since it demonstrates how one reality can become another.

Another memory aid, which involves writing, is taking notes. Note-taking also promotes the strategies of selective attention and organizing one's learning. However, according to Oxford (1990, pp. 86-88), this is a strategy that is not normally taught other than in the form of dictation. Therefore, it is an important strategy to teach beyond the dictation format, since students learn

how to attend to key bits of information, while employing other strategies, such as selective attention and the ability to organize learning.

There are a number of ways in which students may take down notes, but Oxford (1990) describes two ways in which students can be taught how to take down information in an effective and efficient manner. One format is known as the shopping list and requires the use of set categories to determine the main points being attended to either orally or in written form. Although the format does impose a certain writing style, its simplicity allows for easy organization and determination of the categories. This type of note-taking is especially appropriate for Beginning students, since their linguistic ability is limited.

The way in which categories are set depends on the complexity of the text. For example, if students are asked to listen to a flight safety announcement, the categories they might select could be 1) safety items mentioned and 2) location of items. Under each category they would write the item heard and its location. The notes are one word answers that are later transformed into full sentences when the time comes. If students are reading a recipe for making pizza, for example, they might choose the categories of 1) ingredients and 2) utensils. From this information, then, they can reconstruct the recipe, using memory recall to assist them in recreating the recipe.

Another interesting way to take down information and organize thoughts is to use what is called the T-formation. On a full sheet of paper students write a big "T". The top of the "T" or the cross-bar is used for writing the main theme or title for the notes to be taken. On the left side of the "T" the main categories are found and on the right side of the "T" the finer details, such as comments or examples, are written. This form of note-taking is best used at the Intermediate or Advanced levels, since more sophisticated linguistic expressions would be used for this type of note-taking. Even though this type of note-taking predicates higher-order thinking, practice is still needed in order to be able to use the format efficiently. The advantage of this type of note-taking is that it clearly defines where the notes are to be written and, at a glance, the information students are attending to can be organized quickly and effectively. In essence, then, regardless of the note-taking format that is taught, teachers should make every effort possible to encourage students to use a variety of note-taking formats so as to enhance their ability to organize and plan their learning.

To develop organization of thought further, in addition to cohesion and coherence of text in writing, **jigsaw writing** can be used. This activity has students working in pairs to create a story. Each student in the pair is given one or two sentences and as a pair they must interweave their sentences so as to create a story. A variation of this type of activity is one in which students choose a picture and one student begins the paragraph by writing the first sentence. The second student must now look at the picture, read his/her peer's sentence and write a sentence which is linked to the previous sentence. This back-and-forth process continues until the students feel their paragraph fully depicts

their picture. Next, the paragraphs are either edited by the teacher or peers, or handed in to the teacher who may choose one or two paragraphs and read them aloud. The task of the students is to determine from the texts being read which picture is being described. In essence, this type of activity helps elicit the creative application of language use in addition to deploying students' knowledge about coherence and cohesion of text.

As has been seen by the few examples provided above, there are numerous ways in which students can become cognizant of strategy use and subsequently able to apply this conscious knowledge to practical applications. It is the teachers' role to arouse their students' curiosity as it pertains to strategies, thus raising this knowledge to a conscious level. In turn, it is up to the students to transform this conscious knowledge to the learning of the second language.

Grouping Students

Group work is often perceived as requiring extensive teacher preparation and ultimately resulting in a lot of noise in the classroom. However, the positive results outweigh the negative ones, as students are given many more opportunities to interact with people other than just the teacher, while increasing dramatically the amount of language they will receive or produce. This is very important, since quite often teachers tend to fall into the trap of doing all of the talking.

Students can be grouped in a number of ways: in pairs, in small groups of three to four or even five to six students. Uneven pairs can be used effectively in the following ways: 1) one student acts as an observer of the pair that is working, 2) he/she can report on the students' interaction or 3) he/she can act as a facilitator for using the language or as a guide by being responsible for keeping the pair on task. In this sense, the third student is also actively engaged in the pair work, although not directly. Rather, his/her feedback is given to the pair after they have completed the activity. Grouping, then, will depend upon the activity and the kind of follow-up or end result that is desired.

When grouping students, however, it is most important that students be given clear and concise instructions so that they know what is expected of them in order to complete the activity or task successfully. Even though there will be times in which the activity or task may be open-ended in nature, the instructions should be clear and precise. Students should know that an end result is expected of them and that they are accountable not only to their group but to the class as a whole.

Students should be grouped according to their strengths and not their weaknesses, since their contribution to the group's activities will depend upon what they are capable, not incapable, of doing. By using the students' strengths, they will be more compelled to work in a group situation and participate more

actively as their contribution(s) will be viewed in a more positive manner by other members of the group. Group work will also assist students who feel uncomfortable taking part in activities that require full class participation, because their involvement is perhaps more confined and lower key in a small group and, therefore, less threatening. These kinds of students may benefit more from group activities in that they may develop greater confidence in their abilities and may later feel more at ease participating in full class activities.

However, grouping students does not necessarily have to follow the general rule of placing individuals in groups on the basis of their strengths, especially if the activity is not too difficult, requires a few minutes and takes up less than one class period to complete. Traditional ways of grouping students have often been carried out by either numbering off students, asking students to find a partner or having them turn around or to the side and face the student behind or beside them. There is nothing wrong with using these techniques, but often they become too routine and students become so familiar with the procedure that they no longer take interest in group activities, especially when they find themselves always working with the same person or people. To add a refreshing touch to grouping students Galloway (1990, p. 13) provides some innovative suggestions that are based on vocabulary categorization. Here are some of these ideas:

- As students come into the classroom, they are given a piece of paper with a month of the year. When the group activity begins, students are grouped according to the season in which their month falls.
- Each student is given a card with a picture of an article of clothing and grouped according to the season/activity in which one would use this type of clothing.
- Students are given cards with items that they can purchase in stores and grouped according to the store in which they would find a particular item. This could be used to demonstrate students' cultural knowledge as well, since in certain francophone cultures shopping habits are quite different from those of Canadians.
- Students are grouped according to their favorite food which is then categorized such that all the fruits would be together, all the meats and so on.

What is most interesting about this technique is that students are grouped in a contextualized fashion that is different and forces them to use their knowledge of the language in order to group themselves accordingly. Therefore, grouping takes on new meaning because, firstly, students do not know who they will be working with and cannot complain about their partner or group members as all students are in the same situation. Secondly, they are required to think about which group they belong to rather than with whom they are going to work.

Cooperative learning is also a technique that is becoming increasingly popular as a part of classroom dynamics. One of the benefits that can be derived from using these kinds of activities is the assigning of a specific role to each group member and the group as a whole reaping the rewards for its efforts not its individual members. This technique, however, does require careful planning and is used mainly for more extensive group work. The following description is intended to give teachers a general idea of the process involved. However, since the use of cooperative learning requires more than the brief description that follows, teachers are referred to the bibliography for references concerning cooperative learning.

This technique has, as its basic tenet, that learners cooperate in an activity or a variety of activities in an attempt "to achieve a common goal" (Slavin, 1981, p. 655). In this sense, it decreases the amount of competition and student isolation that is often associated with individual learning activities. The idea, then, is to have students "pool" their ideas and/or strengths in order to carry out the activity(activities) or task(s). However, as Kohn states (1987):

Cooperative learning... means more than putting a bunch of students together and telling them to get to work. It means creating "positive interdependence": structuring students' interactions so that each depends on and is accountable to the others. (p. 54)

In order to attain this cooperation, students are required to work towards the same task or final product, with each group member being made responsible for a certain aspect of the task or product. Thus, students are engaged in a responsible way, knowing that their contributions play an important part in the completion of the task or product. Further, students know that all group members will be evaluated in the same way and that they will share a common mark, thereby decreasing the amount of competitiveness amongst group members and the rest of the class in general. In the context of the second language classroom, however, the principal goal is increasing communication by interacting with others, not just the retention of material. Therefore, when using a cooperative learning activity, teachers should be aware that its use is not focused solely on the results or the end product but, rather, its prime goal is to increase language use through interaction and negotiation.

In essence, there are five key aspects associated with productive cooperative learning:

1. **positive interdependence**, which occurs when students become dependent on each other in a positive way such that every member's contribution is viewed as being valuable and necessary for group success;
2. **group interaction**, which involves the students in face-to-face dialogue amongst members to bring information together or to resolve conflicts;

3. **individual accountability**, which requires that every member be responsible to the group, such that any one member of the group can be called upon by the teacher to describe the group's progress or the material learned thus far;
4. **social skills**, which require students to employ interpersonal skills, such as showing trust, communicating clearly, listening attentively, supporting a fellow member, resolving conflicts and so forth in order to carry out the task or project effectively; and,
5. **group processing**, which involves the students in a form of reflective evaluation in which students assess the effectiveness of the group and define those areas in which improvement is needed (Johnson and Johnson, 1989, p. 30).

Teachers should be aware, however, that although these five aspects seem straightforward enough, it will be necessary to train students in all five aspects, since many students may only be familiar with some of the aspects and others with none at all. Teachers may feel that this may constitute more work than it is worth; however, once students are aware of what it is they are required to do, the use of cooperative learning as a means of grouping students will become second nature for both teacher and students.

The key issue in cooperative learning is the assigning of roles. Each student is given a specific role to play within the activity or task. The roles are not the ones we often associate with group work where we assign the group a task and allow the students to determine what has to be done, how they intend to go about accomplishing the task and deciding who does what, often leaving one group member bearing the brunt of the work. Rather, the principal strategy here involves clearly defining roles that are used on a regular basis, which are outlined to the students. Over the course of the year, these roles are rotated so that every student in the group will eventually have carried out all the roles. In the beginning, teachers will assign the roles ensuring that each role is assigned to the group member who will carry it out best. Each time a new cooperative learning activity is used, students are given a different role from the one they previously had so that they can experience all roles. However, what is most important is providing a good model for each role so that the students are aware of the defined responsibilities that come with any given role.

In setting up a cooperative learning activity, certain steps should be carried out. These steps are as follows:

1. The teacher describes the objective of the learning activity in terms of what the group is expected to accomplish.
2. The teacher defines how the group will demonstrate the completion of the task.

3. The teacher decides on the number of students in each group, the constitution of each group (e.g., mixed ability), the physical arrangement of the groups, the time allotted to the activity, supplies needed by the students, what type of positive interdependence will be created and what social skill(s) will be employed.
4. The teacher defines his/her role and that of the students in the evaluation process.

The following example demonstrates how these four steps can be applied to a cooperative learning activity.

GROUP ACTIVITY: CHOOSING A MENU FOR A FRENCH CLASS YEAR-END PARTY

Objective of the Activity:

Students will write and present a menu which includes an example of a francophone food item.

Presentation of the Activity:

Each group will plan a menu for a class party, write it up and present it orally to the rest of the class. Once all the menus have been presented, the class will choose a menu for their class party.

Teacher Decisions:

1. Students will work in groups of three to four.
2. Groups will be selected according to mixed abilities and lists will be posted prior to the beginning of class.
3. Students will work at tables or desks grouped in small circles or squares.
4. Groups will be given twenty minutes to write their menus and ten minutes to process (edit and evaluate) their group work. Menus will be presented in the next class.
5. Groups will need to be supplied with role cards, paper, pencils, chart paper and a felt pen.
6. Positive interdependence will be developed in the following ways:
 - a) students will have assigned roles and
 - b) presentation of the menu will be shared in that each group member is responsible for presenting a part of the menu.
7. The social skills used will be: listening to suggestions of others, praising members for suggestions whether they are used or not and helping each other with vocabulary and use of the language.
8. The teacher will give the students twenty minutes to carry out the activity and ten minutes to evaluate and process their individual and group participation.

9. Group work will be monitored by the teacher, providing feedback on the students' social skills. Students will complete self- and group evaluations on their performance (see **Student Evaluation Guide** for examples on how to write self- and peer evaluation grids). The teacher will evaluate only the group's performance on the activity.

Student Activities:

Dans un groupe de quatre, vous allez planifier un menu pour une partie à la fin de l'année scolaire. Premièrement, vous allez avoir un remue-méninges des aliments que vous aimez manger. Deuxièmement, en groupe, vous allez créer votre menu, basé sur les décisions que vous avez faites ensemble. Écrivez votre première ébauche sur une feuille et vérifiez l'orthographe des mots employés. Troisièmement, réécrivez la version finale sur les grandes feuilles blanches pour votre présentation dans la classe qui vient. Chaque membre est responsable pour une partie de la présentation du menu.

Souvenez-vous de bien écouter les suggestions des autres membres et de donner de la bonne rétroaction pour leurs suggestions. Aidez aux autres membres avec des mots et de la bonne prononciation. Employez un dictionnaire si c'est nécessaire. Chaque membre va jouer le rôle indiqué sur sa carte. Dans cette activité, il y a une personne qui est responsable pour les directives, une personne pour écrire la première ébauche, une personne pour écrire le menu final et une personne pour donner de la bonne rétroaction aux membres. Le temps alloué pour cette activité est 20 minutes. Vous avez 10 minutes à la fin pour évaluer le travail de votre groupe.*

**Permission to reproduce and adapt this activity has been given by Ms. Judy Goldsworthy on behalf of Calgary district teachers.*

The roles described above, i.e., the “organizer”, the “recorder”, the “editor” and the “praiser” or “encourager”, are written down on separate cards so that each student can refer to the responsibilities of his/her particular role as indicated on his/her card. These cards are kept and used every time a cooperative learning activity is used. The only thing that changes is the assigning of roles. The definitions for the above-mentioned roles can be found in the glossary. Thus, cooperative learning activities provide students with another means of using the language and increasing their interaction with other students in a context-rich environment.

In summary, then, when grouping, prior planning is required beforehand with it fully understood, in advance, that there will be some amount of noise, perhaps more so than would be the case in classrooms organized along more traditional lines. However, in the long term, teachers will find the use of group work rewarding and useful, as students' strengths are maximally drawn upon, the amount of oral discourse is increased and student ideas and knowledge are shared in a real, interactive exchange.

Types and Suggested Uses of Learning Resources

There are, for the most part, basically two types of resources that can be employed in the classroom: 1) so-called didactic learning resources and 2) authentic documents. Each type of resource has a place in the classroom, with each warranting special planning so as to enhance its use in the classroom.

Generally speaking, **didactic resources** are commercially produced by publishing companies and are evaluated by the Language Services Branch of Alberta Education to determine their curriculum fit. If a resource fulfills the requirements of the program of studies, it is allocated to the learning resource list under one of two categories: 1) basic learning resources, which means the resource fulfills at least 75-80% of the learning expectations outlined in the program of studies or 2) support resources, which constitute those resources that fulfill only a small percentage of the learning expectations but also can be allocated to the learning resource list, since they are to be used to enhance and enrich the program or supplement those areas in which the basic resource does not provide ample support for a concept. These resources generally come as complete sets containing student texts, workbooks, teacher guides, flash cards, etc. The use of these resources, in terms of planning and their application to the classroom, is up to the teacher. (A list of the approved resources for the program of studies can be found in Appendix F.)

Authentic documents, another form available to the classroom teacher, can be either oral or written texts such as news broadcasts, newspapers, advertisements, etc., intended for and spoken/written by native speakers (Galloway, 1990). They “reflect a naturalness of form and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language used by native speakers.” (Rogers and Medley, 1990, p. 468). Thus, their primary focus is not to **teach** a language, but rather to **convey** a message (Galloway, 1990). Using these documents in the classroom allows students to listen to and view native speaker language in context. Therefore, within the context of a multidimensional approach, the use of authentic documents demonstrates real language use and provides insight into the target culture, i.e., its social, cultural and psychological values.

Authentic documents come in basically three formats: 1) print media, 2) audio and 3) visual formats. Print media refer to those documents that are found in print form, such as newspapers, magazines, comic strips, pamphlets, posters, novels, short stories, etc., which provide excellent models of written language use. Audio documents refer to those documents obtained from radio programs, unedited taped conversations between native speakers, taped music, etc. Audio documents are excellent for developing tolerance of ambiguity, because learners must now rely on other support mechanisms, such as attending to the key points of the message, not allowing outside noises to distract the listener, tolerating the unknown, etc. Visual documents pertain to those areas, such as film, music

videos, television programs, video games, illustrations, etc. The strength in visual media is that they provide visual support for the learner in two ways. Firstly, non-verbal cues can assist in determining meaning and secondly, they contribute easily to the teaching of cultural nuances inherent in the communication system of francophone cultures. The extent to which these documents will be used will depend largely on students' language abilities, cognitive level and the educational project being planned.

Authentic documents are an excellent means of developing the general language education aspect of the program of studies, since they make us deploy many of the same strategies that we employ in our first language and, in doing so, provide the learner with models for guided practice later on. Their best use is also in the realm of the receptive skills, since the prime goal is not content retention, but rather the ability to derive meaning from text. In oral communication, teaching students to use paraphrasing, phrases that ask the speaker to repeat or even the observation of visual cues such as body gestures, body movements, facial expressions or visual images are strategies that will teach students to anticipate elements in certain contexts. In the case of reading, for example, a native speaker would employ, depending on the situation, such strategies as skimming, anticipating, hypothesizing, guessing the story by means of context clues, scanning, searching for the main point, etc., in order to determine the meaning of the text. A second language learner can be asked to carry out the same tasks; only in this case, the tasks must be carefully planned and laid out for the learners so that the experience of using authentic texts becomes both beneficial and rewarding.

When choosing authentic material for classroom use, there are certain things that a teacher can look for in order to determine if the document is appropriate or not. First of all, especially with the **Beginning** level, one should look for texts that are familiar to the students. These types of texts will allow students to feel more comfortable with the documents, since they are not confronting something totally unknown to them. Furthermore, here is the perfect moment to develop students' tolerance for ambiguity, since all that is important is to determine the gist of the document and not total comprehension of each and every word. This strategy use can be applied by highlighting or listing all that is familiar to them, in both the target language and their first language, so as to begin constructing meaning from the base they have already developed. This type of application will not only assist students in developing strategy use, but will also give them confidence in going into areas that are not familiar to them.

Secondly, one must ensure that there is a sufficient number of contextual clues to assist students in deriving meaning from the text. These clues can be verbal or non-verbal in nature, including, for example, cognates (verbal clues), facial expressions or intonation changes (non-verbal clues), pictorial clues such as photographs, images, graphs, etc., experiential clues, i.e., similar experiences to those which students have had in their first language, and linguistic clues such as word families, language structures previously taught in class, etc. These

clues should also be sufficient in redundancy of ideas, concepts, etc., so as to facilitate the derivation of meaning. Ensuring that these elements are present will diminish the frustration students sometimes feel when dealing with a text that appears to be totally unfamiliar to them.

Thirdly, students can be taught to use strategies such as guessing and hypothesizing by using what they know to determine the unknown. For example, with the case of unfamiliar vocabulary, students can be taught how to discern meaning by using the context or how to search for those words that serve as meaning builders and to ignore those that serve as sentence cohesion markers. These strategies also develop thinking skills as well as strengthen students' tolerance of ambiguity.

Three factors should be kept in mind when making the final decisions on choosing texts and how they will be used: 1) **appropriateness of the texts** – one must always attempt to choose texts that cater to the cognitive maturity and linguistic level of the students, bearing in mind students' interests and, most importantly, ensuring sufficient access to the language being used in the text to create as little frustration as possible, 2) **appropriateness of the tasks** – the tasks chosen to accompany the use of the authentic document must fall in line with students' cognitive and affective abilities and be tied intrinsically to the educational project at hand; every attempt should be made to ensure that the authentic document can be used later on as a reference and/or language model when the students are involved subsequently in production activities, 3) **appropriateness of sequence** – proper decisions must be made as to the types of tasks which will be coordinated with the use of the authentic document.

Pre-activities should be used in order to develop students' ability to anticipate intuitively the kinds of elements that they might find in the text, using their past experiences as a building block. For example, before students are asked to read a job announcement, they could be asked to brainstorm, as a class or in smaller groups, the kinds of things they would find in a job advertisement, where these advertisements are found, why they are written, etc. This step, then, becomes important in assisting students to develop the ability to anticipate elements. The **actual activities**, when using the authentic document, must relate to real life usage. In the instance of the job announcement, students could be asked to search the authentic document for the name of the person to call for more information, to determine the kind of job and its requirements, to determine if a salary is indicated or not, etc. Thus, this step ties the authentic document to activities that would be carried out by native speakers and provides the students with a language experience that is both contextualized and real. The final step, **post-activities**, relates to the activities, most often productive, which would follow those activities involving actual use of the authentic document. Continuing with the job announcement, these activities could take the form of a simulation involving the person looking for the job and the person hiring or it could involve a written activity whereby the students would fill in the application related to the advertised job. Whatever

the activity, be it oral or written, it should also be as real an activity as possible, which will serve, at the same time, to recycle, transfer (reinvest) and reinforce all learning that has taken place previously.

The advantages of the use of authentic documents are quite evident from the discussion above; however, obtaining access to these documents is not as easy. Here are some suggestions:

1. *Le Franco* (francophone newspaper published in Alberta) – 8923 - 82 Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, T6C 0Z2. By obtaining at least one school subscription, teachers can resort to any part of the newspaper for classroom use only.
2. Any pamphlets by the Federal Government from such departments as Fish and Wildlife, Environment Canada, Health and Welfare, etc., belong to the public domain, which means that no copyright infringement occurs if one makes copies for the classroom. To obtain the pamphlets in French, one need only write to the appropriate office.
3. Teachers can write letters to companies such as Eaton's, The Bay, Canadian Tire, Bell-Canada, etc., and request sales catalogues in French. In the case of Bell-Canada, not only does having the telephone directory in French help teach students how to use the telephone book, but it can also serve as an updated dictionary, since any new technical words that have been added recently to the language will be found there.
4. Newspaper subscriptions, especially to Quebec newspapers, are highly recommended. Copyright permission for use of weather symbols has been obtained for use in the classroom. These may be reproduced from the sheets found in Appendix B.

Although teachers may feel ill at ease with the use of authentic documents, a multidimensional curriculum encourages and promotes their use. The next section will discuss lesson planning and the development of integrated units.

Planning

Planning consists of the organization and coordination of learning expectations, learning resources and time allotted to a program in order to deliver the program of studies in a practical teaching situation. In this vein, three types of planning are suggested: 1) yearly planning, 2) integrated unit planning and 3) daily planning. Yearly planning, in keeping with the philosophy of the program, is the determination of the order of presentation of the fields of experience prescribed in the program of studies, as well as other fields of experience that meet the students' needs and interests while integrating the learner expectations of the four components. Ordering of the fields of experience would be done in a logical and coherent fashion, keeping in mind the learning resources available and the time allotted to the program by the school board.

Integrated unit planning consists of setting selected learner expectations in keeping with those outlined in the sublevels of the program of studies, deciding the activities required to achieve these expectations and determining the evaluation criteria against which the students' progress and success in regard to the objectives will be measured. To apply the program's philosophy best in the classroom, the educational project is suggested as the most effective way of integrating the four components of the program of studies and as a means of creating integrated units.

The educational project is a unit of organized learning activities of varied duration in one of the fields of experience prescribed by the program of studies, in which the aim is to provide opportunities for learners to fully experience the language and the culture. The educational project is very flexible in that teachers will be able to adjust their teaching strategies to the students' cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive levels as well as to their needs and interests.

Teachers need not develop an educational project for each field of experience. When appropriate and possible, the teachers can combine or integrate two or more fields of experience. For example, at the secondary level, where it is recommended that **Beginning** sublevels 1 and 2 be taught simultaneously, the fields of experience "School" and "Holidays and Celebrations" could be combined into one educational project called "Preparation of a Back-to-School Student Handbook", which could include a calendar of celebrations, holidays and school events. In this regard, larger educational projects can be used instead of a number of smaller ones.

It is important to note that when an educational project is being planned, the program's learner expectations have to be adjusted for each field of experience. In addition, the intent is not to cover all the learner expectations within each

project. Instead, the important thing is to have covered all the learner expectations of the program of studies by the end of the year.

In this regard, daily planning is the sequential development of communication skills (receptive and productive), cultural and linguistic knowledge, and skills and learning strategies which will provide students with the necessary tools to engage in a language experience. In each lesson, the teacher must try to integrate activities from all four components as much as possible, following the stages of the proposed teaching methodology: 1) preparatory phase (introduction, necessary knowledge, context), 2) experience phase (integration of communicative activities – aural comprehension, oral production, reading comprehension and written expression), 3) reflection phase (verification, feedback, objectivation), 4) reinvestment phase (recycling of knowledge – receptive and productive skills, content or context) and 5) evaluation phase (with formative evaluation going on continuously). By following these stages, the teacher can be sure that the integrative activities will run smoothly in the classroom.

The following pages contain explanations and examples of yearly planning, educational projects and daily lessons which are intended to be used as suggestions only.

Yearly Planning

Yearly planning is based on the learning of French as a second language over the course of the school year. The teacher must select a logical sequence in which to present the fields of experience, bearing in mind such factors as the level of instruction (elementary, junior high or senior high), the time allotted to the French as a second language program by the school board and the human, learning and physical resources available.

Starting with the fields of experience and the factors mentioned above, the teacher plans the school year by determining a chronological order for the fields of experience and selecting their corresponding educational projects. (See Appendix C entitled “Suggestions for Educational Projects” for some ideas.) Next, the teacher must decide approximately how much time should be allotted to each project. It is not necessary to plan all the projects at the same time, but organizing them chronologically ensures that all the fields of experience will be dealt with during the school year.

The “Year Plans” that follow this explanation show one way of organizing the school year. This is not the only way, but it does provide an idea of how to proceed. These three year plans show how the same fields of experience may be adjusted according to the level of instruction and the time allotted to the French as a second language program. Note that these examples of year plans were developed with ideal teaching conditions in mind and should be adjusted

according to the teacher's personal situation. In addition, they are solely for illustrative purposes and do not imply that this is the only order to follow. Rather, the order of teaching the fields of experience is the teacher's choice. A blank repromaster of this year plan format appears in Appendix A.

EXAMPLE 1: YEARLY PLANNING

YEAR PLAN: 1991-92

SUBLEVEL: Beginning 1

GRADE: Gr. 4, 30 mins./day

MAIN RESOURCE(S): Bienvenue/Aventures

Month	Field of Experience	Unit (Educational Project)	Time Allotted
September	School	• practising classroom routines	• 4 weeks
October	School	• planning a guided tour	• 3 weeks
October/ November	People Around Us	• making a family tree	• 4 weeks
November/ December	Holidays and Celebrations	• planning a "réveillon"	• 3 weeks
January/ February	Animals	• having a circus	• 6 weeks
February/ March	Holidays and Celebrations	• making a calendar of holidays	• 3 weeks
March	Holidays and Celebrations	• planning a surprise party for someone	• 3 weeks
April	Weather	• giving a weather report on television (radio)	• 3 weeks
May	People Around Us	• making a sociogramme of the class	• 3-4 weeks
June	Optional	• optional	• 3-4 weeks

EXAMPLE 2: YEARLY PLANNING

YEAR PLAN: 1991-92

SUBLEVEL: Beginning 1/2

GRADE: Gr. 7/Gr. 10, 40 mins./day, 5 days/week

MAIN RESOURCE(S): Arc-en-ciel

Month	Field of Experience	Unit (Educational Project)	Time Allotted
September	School Holidays and Celebrations	• preparing a "back-to-school" student handbook	• 3 weeks
September/ October	Weather	• giving a weather report using two different media	• 2 weeks
October/ November	People Around Us	• making a family tree	• 3 weeks
November/ December	Holidays and Celebrations/Food	• organizing a family reunion for Christmas	• 5 weeks
January/ February	Food/Physical Fitness	• making a Canada Food Guide	• 5 weeks
February/ March	Housing/The Community	• designing the ideal city/house	• 5 weeks
April/May	Animals/Housing	• designing the ideal zoo	• 5 weeks
May/June	Clothing	• organizing a fashion show	• 5 weeks
June	Optional	• optional	• 3 weeks

EXAMPLE 3: YEARLY PLANNING

YEAR PLAN: 1991-92

SUBLEVEL: Beginning 1/2

GRADE: Gr. 10, Semestered – 80 mins./day

MAIN RESOURCE(S): Arc-en-ciel

Month	Field of Experience	Unit (Educational Project)	Time Allotted
September	School Holidays and Celebrations	• preparing a “back-to-school” student handbook	• 4 weeks
October	Weather	• giving a weather report using two different media	• 2 weeks
October/ November	People and Animals Around Us	• making a family album	• 4 weeks
November/ December	Holidays and Celebrations/Food	• organizing a family reunion for Christmas	• 4 weeks
January	Housing/ Community	• designing the ideal city/house	• 3 weeks

Planning an Integrated Unit

For planning an integrated unit, educational projects are suggested as the preferred method of integrating the specific learner expectations of the program's four components. The development of an educational project involves three main steps that organize the teaching/learning of a field of experience in a logical fashion. Essentially, these three steps are:

- Step One: • select a field of experience or a combination of fields of experience,
 • brainstorm, in a general way, the learner expectations derived from the program of studies, the main activities and the learning resources in order to create an educational project;
- Step Two: • describe in a detailed way, the objectives and mini-tasks for each major activity,
 • arrange the major activities in logical order; and
- Step Three: • plan daily lessons on the basis of the major activity sheets.

To make sure the procedure is clear, the following paragraphs will serve as a guide to the worksheets that are found in Appendix A.

Taking the page entitled “Step One – Idea Sheet” in Appendix A, the teachers select the field of experience or the combination of fields of experience to be explored and fill in the Field(s) of Experience circle. Teachers then begin at the circle they feel most comfortable with by brainstorming what learner expectations of the four components of the program of studies (labeled as follows: e./c. = experience/communication, c. = culture, l. = language and g.l.e. = general language education) will be taught and which major activities or which learning resources will be used to develop the educational project. This step is completed when all four circles have been filled in. In this manner, an educational project is created. If preferred, teachers may start by referring to Appendix C: Suggestions for Educational Projects, to find ideas that may assist them in stimulating the brainstorming process.

In the second step, teachers take each major activity listed on the brainstorming sheet and now describe, on the page entitled “Step Two – Major Activity Sheet”, the specific objectives and mini-tasks required to complete these major activities. At the same time, teachers may check off the skills and components covered by the mini-tasks as a means of ensuring a balance between the skills and activities in each component. The language skills are coded on the major activity sheet in the following fashion: aural comprehension (A.C.), oral production (O.P.), reading comprehension (R.C.) and written expression (W.E.). The four components are coded in this way: experience/communication (e./c.), culture (c.), language (l.) and general language education (g.l.e.).

When all the major activity sheets have been completed, they should be arranged in chronological order and numbered accordingly. Once they are in order, the teacher can begin to develop the daily lesson plans following the suggested methodology. This means that each lesson should include an introduction, a number of activities and a conclusion to tie all aspects of the lesson together. This process will be explained further in the section on daily lesson planning.

The worksheets for creating an educational project can be found in Appendix A. All or some of the worksheets may be reproduced for your needs. "Step One" sheet is for the brainstorming to take place with respect to the program's learner expectations, the major activities and the learning resources. The "Step Two" sheet is for describing the specific objectives of the major activity and the mini-tasks that will ensure a balance between the activities and the skills being developed. Finally, the "Step Three" sheet is for daily lesson planning. Within the development of the educational project, one must decide when and how formative and summative evaluation will take place throughout the project. (See the Student Evaluation Guide for suggestions.)

Appendix D of the **Teacher Resource Manual** includes examples of educational projects at the Beginning level of the program, which show how to integrate the learner expectations of the program of studies, the teaching methodology and the learning resources. Two educational projects in the same field of experience are presented to demonstrate the adjustments made in order to cater to the students' differing cognitive levels and their points of entry into the program. As the Intermediate and Advanced levels come on stream, educational projects for these levels will be illustrated in supplements to the **Teacher Resource Manual**.

Daily Lesson Planning

There are all sorts of ways to plan a lesson. The format teachers choose will depend on their teaching style and philosophy. The format for daily lesson planning presented in this section is derived from the philosophy articulated in the program of studies and is only a suggestion which can be tailored to suit teachers' individual needs.

In essence, daily lesson planning reflects teaching methodology in practice; i.e., one puts into practice in the classroom the process described on pages 42-45 of the **Teacher Resource Manual**. Generally speaking, there are three main steps in the development of a daily lesson plan: 1) introduction to the lesson, 2) the lesson activities and 3) lesson closure. In linking these steps to the suggested teaching methodology, the introduction to the lesson can either represent the preparatory phase or the reinvestment of knowledge/skills. Consequently, the introduction's role will change depending on where it is

situated within the overall group of related lessons. On the other hand, closure represents the reflective phase or evaluative phase of the teaching cycle.

More specifically, the **introduction** plays two roles in a lesson. First of all, it consists of an activity that ties the students' background knowledge to the language experience which is to be presented in the lesson. Therefore, the activity that is chosen is intended to motivate the students such that they will actively participate in the lesson. Secondly, the introduction should tie together the previous lesson's attainments with the objectives of the current lesson. Thus, one must keep in mind that the purpose of this step is to recycle and reinvest constantly the knowledge and skills being developed. Hence, the role of the introduction is to initiate the lesson and set the tone for the remainder of the lesson.

The activities are all the mini-tasks needed to attain the objectives described in the lesson or the educational project. Normally, the procedure is to develop the receptive skills before developing the productive skills. In addition, it is equally important to include, as much as possible, a variety of activities from each component as well as in each language skill as a means of sustaining the students' attention and also respecting the number of different learning styles that are present in the classroom. In this regard, the activities that are chosen must ensure the constant recycling and reinvesting of students' knowledge and skills.

The final stage in the lesson is **closure**. The purpose of this step is to tie together the elements of the lesson in a reflective manner. One can proceed in a variety of ways such as asking a question which summarizes the lesson, evaluating the lesson formally or by reflecting on the lesson's events using grids as a guide for this reflective process (see the **Student Evaluation Guide** for examples).

Another possibility is to initiate an activity which would set the stage for the next day's lesson. Essentially, then, this step ensures that each lesson is linked to the next, while at the same time providing the teacher with an opportunity to evaluate the level of success of the lesson.

Depending on whether the ultimate planning outcome is an educational project, an integrated unit, or a "stand-alone" lesson, one must delineate the specific objectives for each lesson. For example, if one is following the process suggested in the development of an educational project, the specific objectives are already described on the major activity worksheets. However, if one decides to follow another means of lesson planning, it will be necessary to formulate the specific lesson objectives. Therefore, the following examples illustrate two possible ways in which daily lesson plans can be developed. The first example pertains to an educational project and the second one will assist teachers who choose to use another means of planning.

The sample lesson is from the field of experience "Fashion" from **Intermediate** sublevel 5, illustrating the steps mentioned above. The framework for this lesson is a television talk show such as the one hosted by Oprah Winfrey. The activities described in the plan will show which components and steps are being focused upon in the lesson. The numbers used correspond to: 1) experience/communication, 2) culture, 3) language and 4) general language education.

Teachers can find blank repro masters of these lesson plan formats in Appendix A.

EXAMPLE 1: DAILY LESSON PLAN

Lesson No.: 1

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: _____

RESOURCE(S): Mag-Puce: N° 1 Automne – Livret, p. 30-32
Mag-Puce: N° 1 Automne – Cahier, p. 30-32
Circuit: p. 162-63 pour la lecture
une chanson de la musique pop québécoise (Mitsou, par exemple)

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction (Preparatory phase)	- opens the class with an introduction to the television program: "Bonjour et bienvenue à notre programme «C'est la vie!». Aujourd'hui, nous allons découvrir le sens du mot «la mode». Nous n'avons pas d'experts aujourd'hui. Alors nous allons employer nos spectateurs pour arriver au sens du mot." - circulates around the class asking the question: "Pourquoi as-tu décidé de porter ces vêtements?" - gives instructions	- listen (1) - answer the question (1) - in groups, ask the same question plus: "Quels vêtements préfères-tu porter?" (1)	2 mins. 4 mins. 5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks (Experience)	- has students participate as a group in a mini-survey of preferences - plays a Quebecois pop song (2) - brainstorms with the class for the names of different fashion groups and the elements that separate them - gives instructions for fashion group composition - gives instructions for turning to p. 32 of Mag-Puce	- give the preferences of their peers (1) - a few students read aloud prepared texts (1, 3) - give their ideas (1) - create a description in small groups (1) - a representative from each group reads out their description (1) - discover the correct meaning of the words by using word association to see that "la mode" refers not only for clothing, but that words themselves can be fashionable (2, 4)	3 mins. 5 mins. 3 mins. 5 mins. 5 mins. 5 mins.
Closure (Reflection phase)	asks the question: "Maintenant quelle est votre définition de la mode?"	answer (1)	3 mins.

EXAMPLE 2: DAILY LESSON PLAN

DATE: _____

- OBJECTIVE(S):
- (e./c.) 1. to understand and express orally and in written form, in a prepared and sometimes spontaneous manner, one's preferences regarding fashion
 - (c.) 2. to research and identify similarities and differences between formal and informal language use
 - (l.) 3. to understand and use the vocabulary for fashion and the past and present tenses based on the context
 - (g.l.e.) 4. to hypothesize the correct meaning of fashionable language use

	Steps	Resource(s)	Time Allotted
Introduction: (Preparatory phase)	- begin the class with an introduction to the television program (1) - circulate around the class asking the question: "Pourquoi as-tu décidé de porter ces vêtements?" (1) - in groups of two, students ask the same question plus: "Quels vêtements préfères-tu porter?" (1)		2 mins. 4 mins. 5 mins.
Activities: (Experience)	- have a mini-survey of preferences (1) - students read aloud prepared texts while listening to a Quebecois pop song (1, 3) - brainstorm for the names of fashion groups and the elements that separate these groups (1) - in small groups, students choose a group and write a brief description (1) - a representative reads aloud the group's description (1) - discover the correct meaning of fashionable words (2, 4)	- Circuit: p. 162-63 - Quebecois pop song (Mitsou, for example) - Mag-Puce: N° 1 Automne – Livret, p. 32	3 mins. 5 mins. 3 mins. 5 mins. 5 mins. 5 mins.
Closure: (Reflection phase)	ask the question: "Maintenant, quelle est votre définition de la mode?" (1)		3 mins.

Technology in the Classroom

The use of technology in the classroom is important, since technology in and of itself attempts to represent some aspects of society. Thus, by using technology, teachers are indeed bringing another form of culture into the classroom. However, one of the drawbacks of technology is that it changes more rapidly than it can be implemented into the classroom. Furthermore, as in the case of computers, program designers do not appear to be able to design and write programs that are congruent with second language learning. Consequently, what programs do become available are often obsolete and not enticing to the listener/viewer. In spite of these drawbacks, there are ways in which technology can be employed in the classroom.

The first most important piece of equipment that should be used in the classroom is the cassette deck, since this type of equipment allows for the presentation of audio material which is required for the development of aural comprehension. It also provides a means of hearing authentic auditory documents in a controlled fashion. In addition, a radio component is quite often included as part of this equipment, giving students an opportunity to listen to unedited language. Teachers are encouraged to use the radio in addition to the cassette deck so that students realize that there are other avenues in which they may have access to the second language. A secondary use of this type of equipment can be the creation of a separate listening centre for those students who may need remediation or for those who finish their work early. Teachers can locate other authentic documents that students would find interesting that could foster further interest in the second language. Listening activities of this sort will encourage students to listen to French outside the confines of the classroom.

The cassette deck can also be used to record student productions when it is equipped with this feature. This feature can be especially valuable when students are involved with pen-pals, since they can record a letter as an alternative to a written letter. In addition, this aspect of the cassette deck can be of assistance to the teacher when an oral evaluation is to take place, especially in those situations which could naturally be recorded, such as a presentation or an interview. By recording students' voices, teachers can focus their evaluation practices on the criteria they have delineated and not on the whole production. Evaluating in this manner will not only be less subjective, but will also provide students with invaluable information on their progress in general and what areas need attention or improvement more specifically. Thus, the cassette deck not only provides a means for listening to the language in authentic situations; it also can be used as a means of evaluating students.

Another valuable tool for teachers is the overhead projector, since it can be used to compile the results of small group work, brainstorming or semantic maps, to teach vocabulary, to alert students' attention to a particular grammatical point, and so on. Furthermore, its use may be more natural than a chalkboard or white board, since teachers may partially turn their backs to their students when using the chalkboard or white board. The overhead projector allows teachers to face their students and make the communication of concepts more natural. In addition, students will find using the overhead projector both fun and motivating, since they will be able to use it in a similar manner. In fact, this latter point can be most beneficial in boosting the morale of the students who are experiencing difficulty in the classroom, either with the language or their behaviour. Being responsible for even just the operation of the overhead projector will now allow these student to play an active, responsible role in the daily routine of the classroom. In this vein, their role will be viewed in a positive manner by both their peers and the teacher. In this sense, technology can be used as a means of classroom management as well.

The language lab can play a role in enhancing and supporting the program of studies.

The language lab can become a centre of exploration for students in which they practice communicative activities without feeling inhibited or intimidated. Students can seek out individual help from the teacher, again without feeling as if they are unable to formulate good sentences in front of their peers. This is especially important for timid or weaker students. Thus, the language lab can be used to boost students' self-concept and self-esteem rather than deflate it. Further, it can be a place in which students can assist each other in oral presentations or reading aloud. Students can record their presentations in a "trial run" fashion and ask fellow students to evaluate informally or through the use of grids the work they have presented on tape (see the **Student Evaluation Guide** for the development of grids for peer evaluation). The feedback obtained from their peers will provide students with a means of improving their communication without the stigma of a formal evaluation looming over their presentation. Allowing students the opportunity to practise prepared communications will not only give them more confidence, but may even foster the development of an important language learning strategy, i.e., learning to listen to oneself so as to be able to self-correct.

Teachers can also use the language lab to their advantage when using authentic oral texts. Students can tape a version of the text and practice the skills discussed in the aural comprehension section, such as anticipating elements of the text. In this way, students will be more willing to take risks with authentic texts, because the "risk" factor has been decreased by the fact that students make the decision as to how much they are able to handle at one time. As they

become more secure with the language they will be willing to take more risks. This is especially important for older **Beginning** level students, since they tend to hesitate listening to and producing the language for fear of making a mistake. The language lab can diminish this fear by allowing these students the time to process the language and experiment with it at their own pace.

Another important role of a language lab is its use in terms of evaluation, especially students' final oral productions. When teachers opt to use the language lab in this manner, they should bear in mind that students must be evaluated in an authentic manner, i.e., the task must be one that pertains to real life and in keeping with the project developed, such as giving a weather report on the radio, presenting a public announcement and so on. The language lab should not be used to evaluate strictly the analysis of the language; rather, students must be evaluated on their ability to communicate effectively in a real-life situation. Teachers will find that the types of tasks used for evaluation in this case are those which involve noninteractive communication, i.e., tasks which are of the one-way type, such as announcements, oral presentations, reports and so on. Consequently, dialogues cannot be effectively evaluated in this manner, since they involve face-to-face communication.

The language lab should only be used, then, when noninteractive situations are being evaluated. Further, students should be allowed to listen to their own productions and correct them, since this occurs often and naturally in one's first language. As has been seen, the language lab does not need to be used as a centre for language analysis; rather, its role now is to provide students with an environment which encourages them to take risks with the language.

A discussion on technology would not be complete without a reference to the use of computers in a second language classroom, since they are becoming increasingly more prevalent in education in general, as they become more efficient and less costly. Their use in the second language field is still quite limited, since the programs available are basically analytical in nature and often very tedious. Consequently, the prime role of these programs is mainly one of language drill, either for remediation or individualized grammar practice. However, teachers wishing to use the computer in the classroom should and are encouraged to do so, bearing in mind that the types of programs available are few and limited in quality.

In spite of this drawback, teachers can try word processing programs developed for Francophones to assist students with their written expression. In this way, the computer can be used as an instrument of exploration, since students can work with the written language in a non threatening way, as they learn to tie thoughts and ideas together in a coherent and cohesive manner. However, computers should not be considered as an alternative means of teaching the written aspect of the language, since computers cannot effectively teach students how to write; rather, they can assist students in learning the writing process. Again, the types of tasks that students carry out on the computer must

replicate real-life tasks, such as writing an advertisement, a want-ad, a personal letter, a report and so on. For the time being, then, the use of computer software is limited; however, teachers should not be discouraged because designers may eventually become more proficient in developing programs for the second language classroom.

Computers, however, have been used successfully in twinning students from francophone centres with those in anglophone areas through the use of the modem. This type of technology allows students access to francophone pen-pals through a mail system, providing them with an opportunity to write letters on the computer to their pen-pals. Although costly to install, students and teachers alike have found this particular use of the computer to be very valuable. Unfortunately, at the present time the cost of this type of technology is very much a factor in its practical application to the classroom. However, it is not inconceivable that in the not-too-distant future, technology of this type may become more readily accessible to second language classroom teachers.

The use of video is another important technological instrument that can be brought into the classroom, not only to view commercial productions, but for student-produced work as well. Commercially produced videos can provide a visual look at the target culture and can capture many of the non-verbal nuances that audio cannot. Further, video not only captivates its viewers, but it also assists them in being able to comprehend the oral text better. This support mechanism is certainly true for **Beginning** level students. In addition, videos are usually shorter than films and often treat topics of interest to students, such as music videos. A number of activities can be done with video, such as having students anticipate the ending of the sequence, changing the ending, creating a cliff-hanger, creating a spoof version of a soap opera and so on. There is an endless number of activities that one can do with video; however, not all teachers have the time to come up with these activities, but, Stempleski and Tomalin (1990) have. In their book, entitled *Video in Action: Recipes for Using Video in Language Teaching*, they describe a number of activities which are graded by language level and focus. Teachers are encouraged to use this book if they need ideas.

Another form of video is the interactive videodisc. However, its development and accessibility to the classroom is quite limited due to the high production costs involved in this type of equipment. Once again, though, as technology develops these types of items, they will become more accessible to the classroom; therefore, a discussion of this item is warranted.

Interactive videodisc entails the use of discs that function in a similar fashion to compact discs. Instead of producing sound, they produce images on a television screen which are digitally stored on the videodisc. The advantage of this type of technology is that teachers can find an image instantly instead of having to use the fast forward button on a remote to determine the image's location.

Furthermore, this technology can be hooked up to a computer in such a way that the viewer can now "interact" with the video screen by giving the computer either commands or information.

This type of technology has been used in England to teach culture with excellent results. Students were asked to watch a scenario and then decide what they would do in such a case. They would enter their information into the computer which in turn would instruct the videodisc to demonstrate to the students the consequences of their choice. Students could then determine if they had made a culturally appropriate decision. In England, they were not able to continue the development of these discs due to their exorbitant costs and had to cancel the rest of the project. Nevertheless, teachers should be aware that this technology does exist and could very well be available in the future as production of these videodiscs becomes more viable.

Another piece of technology that can affect the confines of the second language classroom is satellite dish transmissions. At the present time, this technology is accessible to classroom teachers, but once again at an extremely high cost. The advantage of this type of technology is that it allows students direct access to the target culture in any part of the world. As in the case of computers, a classroom is twinned with another classroom in the francophone world, and at a set time of day the schools are connected via satellite. Within minutes, students are able to talk instantaneously to other students anywhere in the world. However, the cost is not the only drawback in this case; time differences between locations can impede, if not make almost impossible the setting up of appropriate link-up times, unless special arrangements are made by the corresponding schools. This is especially the case with transatlantic transmissions. Nevertheless, even within the province or at the provincial level, it is not inconceivable to twin schools so that students can practise their skills with other students in similar language learning situations.

Should all this not be possible, there is still one final piece of technology that is accessible to all teachers and students and that is the telephone or the facsimile (fax) machine. The telephone can be used in a number of ways. Students can be asked to phone 1-800 numbers in Quebec to obtain information on popular Quebec tourist attractions, for example. If they are twinned with a school, a teleconference can be set up so that students can practice speaking to each other. Old, used telephones can be obtained from the telephone company and set up in the classroom so that students can experience dialing a long distance number, such as to France, and simulating a telephone conversation with a tourism officer, for example. The ways in which the telephone can be used are endless. The facsimile (fax) machine is another way, too, in which students can exchange texts, write letters and receive authentic documents from a variety of agencies, companies and other sources. A person need only look at the ways in which he/she uses it naturally in his/her own life in order to find its application to the classroom setting.

In essence, then, technology can play a major role in the way in which a second language is taught. Teachers are encouraged to find ways in which these innovations, which affect our daily lives and reflect the lives of the target culture as well, can be applied to the classroom.

Enrichment and Remediation

This section will focus on ways in which the French as a second language program (1991) can provide both enrichment and remediation for students. Given the inherent flexibility of this program, which has been discussed in previous sections of the **Teacher Resource Manual**, the purpose here will be simply to isolate examples of each – enrichment and remediation – already present in the program design. This section is to be viewed, then, as providing illustrations and suggestions only. Teachers are encouraged to adapt and modify the program as they see fit, in keeping with the particular strengths and weaknesses of the students with whom they are working.

Enrichment

Enrichment in the French as a second language program has multiple purposes and possibilities: extending basic skill/knowledge/attitude objectives, going into more depth in given topics/projects, substituting and/or adding on assignments/projects, transforming the nature of given assignments/projects, peer teaching, demonstrating/teaching with younger groups of French as a second language students and so forth. Indeed, the student-centred experiential nature of the program encourages full and active, motivated student participation in which all students live new experiences or relive experiences first encountered in their mother tongue. This involvement, on their part, in negotiating new or lateral meanings, in linguistically and socioculturally different though related contexts, results in all students, to varying degrees, broadening their horizons and expanding their knowledge, i.e., becoming enriched.

To focus momentarily on the field of experience “Outdoor Life” it can be seen that a number of different projects come to mind, such as a “preparing a nature hike in one’s town/city”, “preparing a camping trip” or “preparing a biking trip to the mountains”. In each case, the word “preparation” suggests that the project will remain within the confines of the classroom; however, all of these projects can become more enriching if they are actually completed outside of the classroom. For example, in “preparing a biking trip to the mountains”, one can actually go to Banff, cycle around the town and view all the different signs that are written in French. Further, since Banff National Park is a Government of Canada Centre of employment, employees are required to be bilingual. Visiting the different Federal Government offices in Banff and interviewing the employees would be enriching in and of itself. Further, students would be able to experience, first hand, the benefits of being bilingual. Picking up these sociocultural nuances and clues will be a part of the general education of all students enrolled in the French as a second language program. Incidentally, they will also come to appreciate alternative perspectives and ways of doing things, thereby broadening their horizons and living enriching experiences.

Specific enrichment activities designed to meet the particular needs of a given student or group of students can also be illustrated.

Extending basic skill/knowledge/attitude objectives is possible in virtually all fields of experience that are introduced in the program. To take the example of "Clothing", in one class the teacher might have four or five different groups of youngsters all prepare an educational project in which a fashion show of teenagers' styles is the culminating activity. In another class, it might be possible to extend the students' vocabulary acquisition and sociocultural awareness, by having a different fashion show presented by each of the five groups (e.g., professional women's styles, professional gentlemen's styles, teenagers' styles, sports fashions, baby fashions, etc.).

Going into more depth in given topics/projects is also possible in virtually all fields of experience that are introduced in the program. Continuing with the example of "Clothing", a group might be asked not only to prepare a fashion show on teenagers' leisure fashions, but also to research and report on comparative clothing budgets for anglophone and francophone Canadian youngsters. Questions such as the following might be asked: Do clothes cost more in francophone areas of Canada? Do francophone Canadians value "chic" more than their anglophone counterparts? Is the evidence of this greater valuing of clothing and "style" able to be traced by comparing similar English- and French-language popular periodicals/newspapers or can it be corroborated by observations of students participating in an exchange with francophone students?

Substituting assignments/projects or transforming the nature of projects is also possible. For instance, some groups of students might put on fashion shows on the basis of what they have determined about French-English styles found in magazines, while another group conducts and reports on research of the kind just suggested above.

Putting on fashion shows and making presentations on a topic related to "Clothing" are also forms of peer teaching and/or of teaching to younger/other groups of French as a second language students. Both of these are enrichment activities for both presenters and recipient/spectator student groups.

Enrichment activities are certainly not limited to the kinds of examples cited above. An attitude of teacher and student experimentation will result in greater creativity and further enrichment for all involved. The structure of the French as a second language program allows for and encourages these kinds of activities.

Remediation

Remediation is really the “flip side” of enrichment. Put another way, what is one student's enrichment is another's remediation. Remediation can be done in a group format or on an individual basis.

Considerable research into the nature of learning has not yet brought us to a full understanding about learning, but we do know with certainty that learning varies from one person to another with respect to cognitive strategies, learning styles, preferred modalities and so forth. With this in mind, sensitive and knowledgeable teachers are encouraged to match activities with students' needs, thereby affording them the opportunity for growth and success. As well, activities should be varied and new activities experimented with, in keeping with students' growing confidence and demonstrated competence, so that their repertoire is steadily and gradually enlarged.

Doing more of the same with what students perceive as activities in which they are uncomfortable or unsuccessful is unlikely to motivate them and result in success. Therefore, teachers are encouraged to allow some students greater involvement in oral activities if that is their inclination, while others do more reading research and writing activities. Changing the nature or requirements of a culminating project activity may allow students to meet the same objectives differently. This is to be encouraged, since it is in keeping with not only the philosophy of this program but also how we learn in real life. The preceding section on enrichment provides some examples of ways in which to adapt and modify activities in accordance with this principle. Other examples of enrichment and/or remediation can be found in other sections of the **Teacher Resource Manual** as well as throughout the **Student Evaluation Guide**.

To summarize, teachers are encouraged to know their students well and to play and experiment with fields of experience so that variety is achieved naturally in teaching/learning and the needs, both enrichment and remedial, of all their students are met, thus providing students with positive learning experiences in the second language.

Glossary

anaphora: any pronoun that can replace a noun; for example Paul is tall. Paul can be replaced with he. He is the anaphora.

behaviourists: those people who believe that language is a learned behaviour; i.e., language is acquired through habit-forming behaviours based on the stimulus-response premise.

cognitivists: those people who believe that language is acquired consciously within the framework of a meaningful system based on rule formation and drill-practice routines.

coherence: contextualized, logical links between ideas in discourse.

cohesion: links between linguistic elements at the word, sentence or discourse levels.

communicative intent: a linguistic function which involves a speaker/writer attempting to relate some idea or thought to a listener/reader, such as asking/giving information, accepting/refusing an invitation, questioning/answering and so on.

discourse: group of organized statements expressing one or more ideas either orally or in written form.

drills: those activities which are mechanical in nature and more often than not involve the replacement or transformation of a grammatical point in decontextualized sentences; e.g., pronoun replacement exercises involving changing nouns to the il/elle or ils/elles forms.

“editor”: the person responsible for checking the final product of a cooperative learning group and leading the group in the final decision making process regarding their group work.

“encourager”: the person responsible for encouraging cooperative learning group members to participate in the task, to share their ideas and opinions and to work hard on the task as a group.

fossilization: process whereby words or phrases are incorrectly stored in memory. A process which is often difficult to eradicate.

grammatical element: a synonym for linguistic element (see definition below).

linguistic element: element of the linguistic code – sound, symbol, vocabulary, grammar or discourse.

“organizer”: the person responsible for organizing his/her group in a cooperative learning task by asking the other group members to describe their roles and to confirm that they understand their roles.

paralinguistic features: pauses, hesitations, silence, social distance, body posture, etc., that in and of themselves have meaning.

“praiser”: the person responsible for praising cooperative learning group members for their participation, their ability to listen, share and assist in the completion of the task.

preference for learning/thinking: the modality (e.g., auditory, visual, tactile, etc.), thinking mode (e.g., inductive/deductive, linear/divergent) or learning atmosphere in which an individual feels most comfortable in acquiring knowledge or a new skill.

“recorder”: the person responsible for writing down the verbal expressions the “praiser” and “encourager” will give members of a cooperative learning group, as they work through their learning task. The verbal expressions used by the “encourager” and the “praiser” are recorded on individual sheets. This person is also responsible for writing down the initial thoughts and ideas brainstormed by the group.

register: special variations of a language that is used in different contexts (e.g., home, workplace, school, advertising, journalism).

reinforcement: a technique which reinforces a positive or desired behaviour.

repetition/mimicry exercises: those activities which often involve mechanical participation on behalf of the students as they repeat after or mimic a model; for example, asking students to repeat a list of words containing the [ō] sound, such as ont, garçon, mouton, etc.

seeded passage: a text often prepared by the teacher which intentionally contains a certain linguistic element which is to be analysed; for example, asking students to identify possessive pronouns in the following text:
Hier, je suis allé(e) à mon magasin favori pour acheter un nouveau t-shirt et j'ai rencontré un de mes copains de l'école. Il était là avec ses parents et il voulait acheter le même t-shirt que moi...

self-concept: the image or vision a person has of him/herself, concerning his/her abilities, worth and loveliness.

self-confidence: the demonstration of confidence in one's own abilities.

self-esteem: the value or opinion a person maintains about him/herself.

sic: an editorial term used to indicate that an error in a quotation is recorded as it is in the original.

spontaneous expression: an oral or written text that is for the most part coherent, but often lacks cohesion and completeness in the following ways: false starts, hesitations, repetitions, incomplete sentences, points only and more errors, in general, than would be tolerated ordinarily in a more formal, prepared oral or written discourse.

stimulus-response: anything visual, auditory or tacit that evokes either a verbal (oral or written) or physical response.

structuralists: those people who believe that language is acquired through a taxonomy of structures; that is, language is viewed as the study of separate elements and then reconstructed into phrases.

text: a combination or series of connected ideas presented orally or in writing to express a communicative intent (e.g., a salutation, a speech, a radio broadcast, a letter, a novel).

tongue twisters (accroche-mâchoire): a phrase or sentence, often nonsensical, which contains the same sound or clusters of sounds; e.g., Six cent soixante-six saucissons secs sautent.

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Further Suggested Teacher References

An important part of teaching a second language is to maintain a certain level of professional development. The onus is on teachers to undertake such a venture; however, it is also acknowledged that teachers have little time to search for readings that will address this need. This section, then, is a compilation of major writings in the field. Teachers are encouraged strongly to endeavour to read as many of these texts and articles as possible. However, the reading does not stop here. Teachers are encouraged further to become members of second language associations and to subscribe to journals in the field in order to continue their growth and expansion of their knowledge. A listing of these key associations and journals follows this reference section.

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Educational Reviews

Alberta Modern Language Journal

Alberta Teachers' Association

Barnett House

11010 - 142nd Street

Edmonton, Alberta

T5N 2R1

Canadian Modern Language Review

237 Hellems Avenue

Welland, Ontario

L3B 3B8

Foreign Language Annals

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

2 Park Avenue

New York, New York

10016, U.S.A.

Le français dans le monde

Hachette

1289, rue Labelle

Montréal, Québec

H2L 4C1

Modern Language Journal

University of Nebraska

P.O. Box 688

Omaha, Nebraska

68101, U.S.A.

Second Languages Bulletin/Bulletin de Langues Secondes

Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers

369 Montrose Street

Winnipeg, Manitoba

R3M 3M1

TESOL Quarterly

TESOL Central Office

Suite 300, 1600 Cameron Street

Alexandria, Virginia

22314, U.S.A.

Teacher Professional Organizations

Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers

369 Montrose Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3M 3M1

Modern Language Council

Alberta Teachers' Association
Barnett House
11010 - 142nd Street
Edmonton, Alberta
T5N 2R1

Appendix A: Reproducible Worksheets

Survey Example

The following example is a survey that students would first fill out individually. Students would then share their answers with a partner and record their partner's answers on a second questionnaire. Group results or class results can then be done. In the case of group results, students could be asked to prepare an oral report describing the trends of their groups and present their findings to the class.

This survey is for use with the field of experience "Housing".

Un sondage des habitudes*

NOM: _____

ÂGE: _____

J'habite ☐ dans une ville. ☐ à la campagne.
☐ dans un village.

J'habite ☐ dans une maison. ☐ dans un condo.
☐ dans un appartement. ☐ dans une cabane.

Coche (✓) si tu es d'accord, pas d'accord ou si tu ne sais pas.

	D'accord	Pas d'accord	Je ne sais pas
1. Je préfère les grandes maisons.	☐	☐	☐
2. J'aime avoir une maison.	☐	☐	☐
3. J'aime avoir une télévision dans ma chambre.	☐	☐	☐
4. J'aime étudier dans ma chambre.	☐	☐	☐
5. J'aime avoir une salle de bain pour moi-même.	☐	☐	☐
6. Je préfère habiter près d'un centre commercial.	☐	☐	☐
7. Je pense qu'il est important d'avoir beaucoup d'appareils ménagers pour simplifier la vie.	☐	☐	☐
8. J'aime avoir une maison avec six chambres à coucher.	☐	☐	☐
9. J'aime avoir une maison avec...			
... un jardin.	☐	☐	☐
... une piscine.	☐	☐	☐
10. Je préfère habiter...			
... dans une ville.	☐	☐	☐
... dans un village.	☐	☐	☐
... à la campagne.	☐	☐	☐

*Adapted from Galloway, 1990.

Un sondage des préférences

NOM: _____

ÂGE: _____

Il/elle habite ☐ dans une ville. ☐ à la campagne.
☐ dans un village.

Il/elle habite ☐ dans une maison. ☐ dans un condo.
☐ dans un appartement. ☐ dans une cabane.

Coche (✓) les réponses de ton/ta partenaire.

	D'accord	Pas d'accord	Il/elle ne sait pas
1. Il/elle préfère les grandes maisons.	☐	☐	☐
2. Il/elle aime avoir une maison.	☐	☐	☐
3. Il/elle aime avoir une télévision dans sa chambre.	☐	☐	☐
4. Il/elle aime étudier dans sa chambre.	☐	☐	☐
5. Il/elle aime avoir une salle de bain pour lui-même/elle-même.	☐	☐	☐
6. Il/elle préfère habiter près d'un centre commercial.	☐	☐	☐
7. Il/elle pense qu'il est important d'avoir beaucoup d'appareils ménagers pour simplifier la vie.	☐	☐	☐
8. Il/elle aime avoir une maison avec six chambres à coucher.	☐	☐	☐
9. Il/elle aime avoir une maison avec...			
... un jardin.	☐	☐	☐
... une piscine.	☐	☐	☐
10. Il/elle préfère habiter...			
... dans une ville.	☐	☐	☐
... dans un village.	☐	☐	☐
... à la campagne.	☐	☐	☐

Aural Comprehension/Oral Production Activity

The purpose of this activity is to have students exchange the information they have heard with a partner and decide whether the information they have heard is correct or not. The teacher prepares a commentary for showing a prospective client a house that is for sale. On the house plan, students indicate where certain items are placed. Once the show home has been described, using the grid which follows the plan, in groups of two, students decide whether the objects are best placed or not. If not, they are to choose a better place for the misplaced objects.

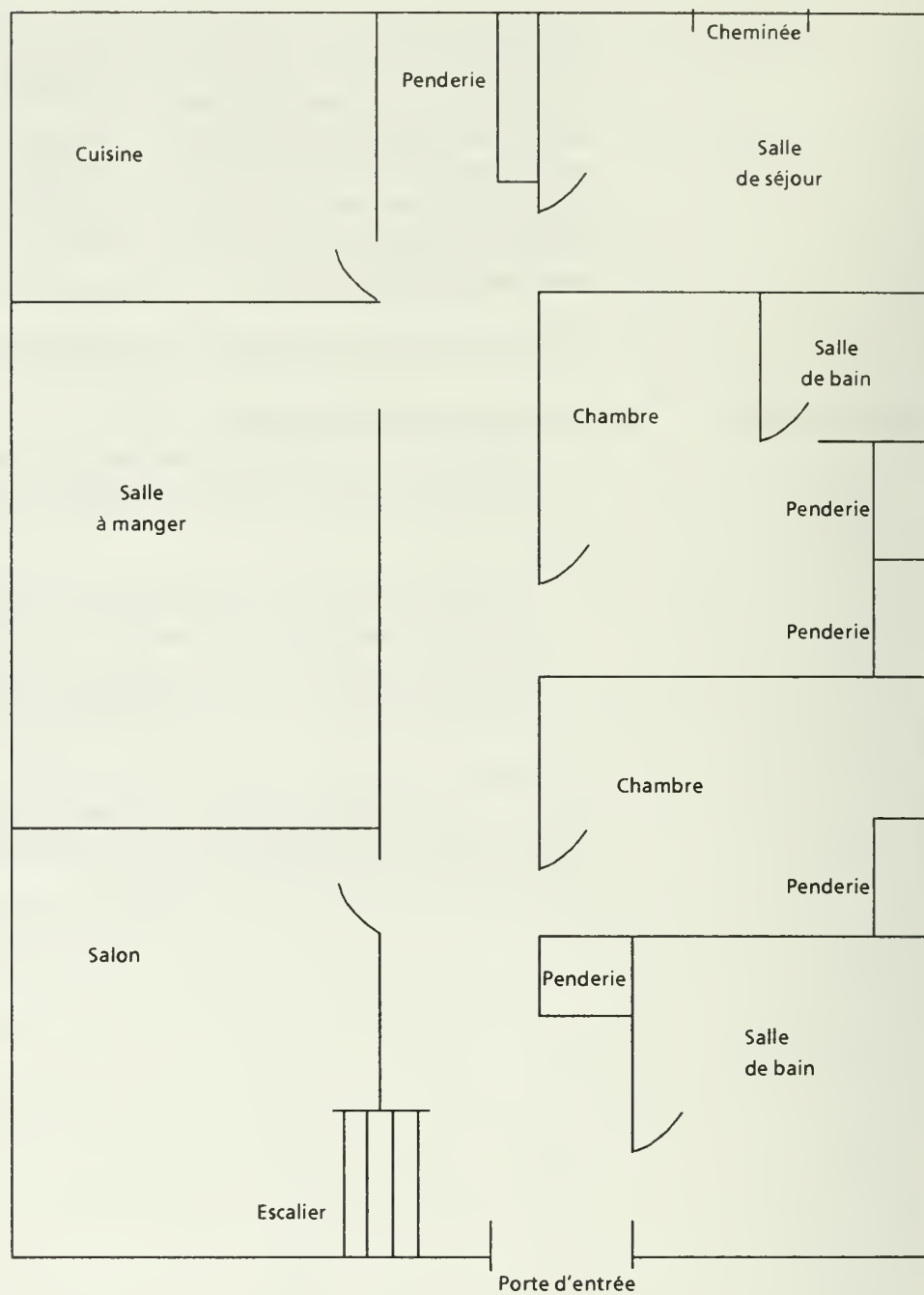
The teacher's commentary could begin something like this:

J'ai une maison parfaite pour vous. Pour mieux comprendre comment cette maison est absolument fantastique, regardez votre plan de maison et dessinez les objets où je vous les indique.

Exemple : En entrant dans la maison, à votre gauche, vous trouvez votre lit jumeau. C'est formidable, n'est-ce pas? Comme ça on peut dormir en arrivant à la maison. Puis, dans la salle de bain, et vous serez à la mode, vous trouvez...

The objects chosen are up to the teacher, as is the commentary. A similar activity could later be carried out by students, working in small groups (3-4), where they create the commentary for their classmates using simple directions and imperatives provided by the teacher.

Plan de maison



Grille d'observation

OBJET	BIEN PLACÉ		MEILLEUR ENDROIT
	Oui	Non	
1. Un lit jumeau	☐	☐	_____
2. Une lampe	☐	☐	_____
3. Une table pour huit personnes	☐	☐	_____
4. Un sofa	☐	☐	_____
5. Un réfrigérateur	☐	☐	_____
6. Une télévision	☐	☐	_____
7. Un téléphone	☐	☐	_____
8. Un miroir	☐	☐	_____
9. Une commode	☐	☐	_____
10. Un ordinateur	☐	☐	_____

Information Gap Activities

The next two activities are examples of information gap activities where students must share their information to provide others with information or to solve a problem, as in the second example – the “whodunit”. The “whodunit” is geared more for Intermediate students and can be used in the field of experience “Social Life” since it deals with the lives of three people.

The first activity deals with students having to make decisions regarding the current rules of their home. Students share their rules in groups of three to four to determine similarities and differences. Then, as a group they can decide which rules they wish to keep and which ones they wish to change. Students present their rules to the class.

The second activity involves clues which students must share with each other in order to solve the mystery. The teacher puts students in groups of six to eight in which pairs are given one or two clues. Once the codes have been broken, students must pool their information together to solve the murder. Teachers should note that this activity may take up to 30-35 minutes to complete.

Les règles de la maison*

Chaque maison a des règles pour les membres de la famille. Associe les expressions de la colonne A à celles de la colonne B pour décrire les règles chez toi.

A	B
Ne pas manger...	- la télévision après 20 heures.
Ne pas écouter...	- de la musique forte.
Ne pas regarder...	- (dans) la salle de bain.
Ne pas laisser les assiettes sales...	- (dans) le salon.
Ne pas jouer...	- (dans) la chambre.
Ne pas sécher les cheveux...	- sur le plancher
Ne pas laisser les vêtements...	- avec les mains.
Faire les devoirs...	- dans le lavabo.
Nettoyer...	- (dans) la salle de séjour.
Ne pas utiliser...	- les crayons sur le mur.

*Adapted from Galloway, 1990.

Answers:

1. M. X est l'ami de Jeannette et il l'aime beaucoup.
2. Jeannette est allée au restaurant «Chez Pierre».
3. Pierre travaille comme chef au restaurant.
4. Jeannette a beaucoup mangé.
5. M. X est un agent de police.
6. On a trouvé un couteau au restaurant.
7. M. X était très jaloux de Pierre.
8. Jeannette aimait bien les repas de «Chez Pierre».
9. M. X était au restaurant à 21 heures.
10. Jeannette est décédée vers 21 heures.
11. C'était le couteau de M. X.
12. Les empreintes digitales de Pierre étaient sur le couteau.
13. Pierre n'a pas travaillé ce soir-là.
14. Jeannette a mangé avec un étranger.
15. Pierre a emprunté le couteau de M. X.

SOLUTION: Vu que Pierre n'était pas le chef ce soir-là, Jeannette est morte d'une intoxication alimentaire. Pierre a laissé le couteau de M. X dans la cuisine et l'autre chef l'a employé sans le laver. C'était un accident ou un meurtre? À vous de décider.

Type of Oral Text: _____

Reason for Listening Activity (what) (how)	Identification	Orientation (based on contextual elements)	Main Idea Comprehension	Detailed Comprehension	Reinvestment of Knowledge
Limited verbal/ non-verbal (e.g., pantomime, T.P.R., show of hands) ▼					
Verification of context (e.g., matching, providing answers, choosing correct answers, etc.) ▼					
Transfer of details (e.g., cloze exercises, charts, grids, applications, etc.) ▼					
Summary of text (oral or written) ▼					
Duplication of text (e.g., role-playing, dictation, transcription) ▼					
Extension of text (e.g., oral discussion, debate, written review or article) ▼					

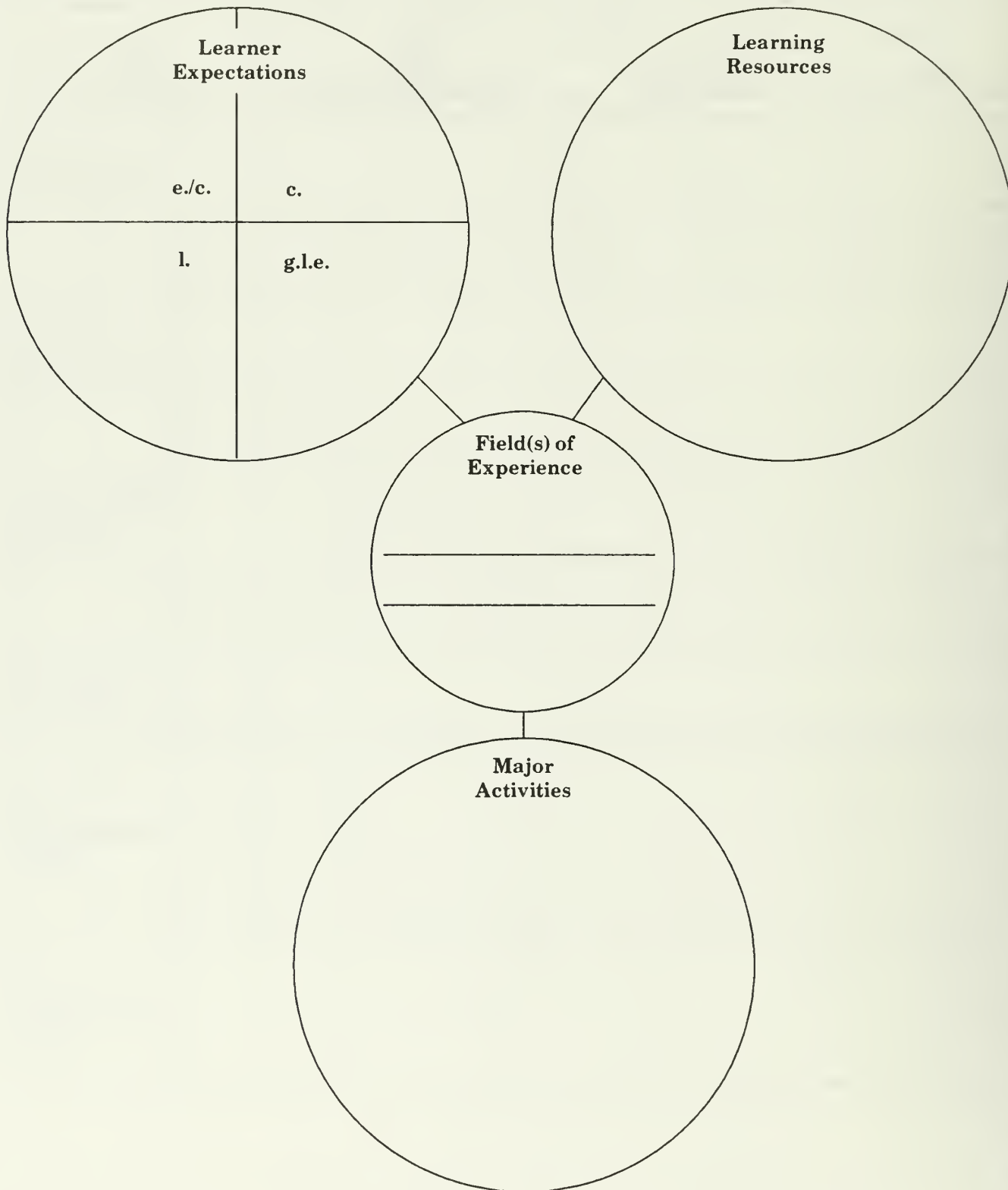
Adapted from Lund, 1990.

YEAR PLAN: _____
 SUBLEVEL: _____
 GRADE: _____
 MAIN RESOURCE(S): _____

Month	Field of Experience	Unit (Educational Project)	Time Allotted

STEP ONE - IDEA SHEET

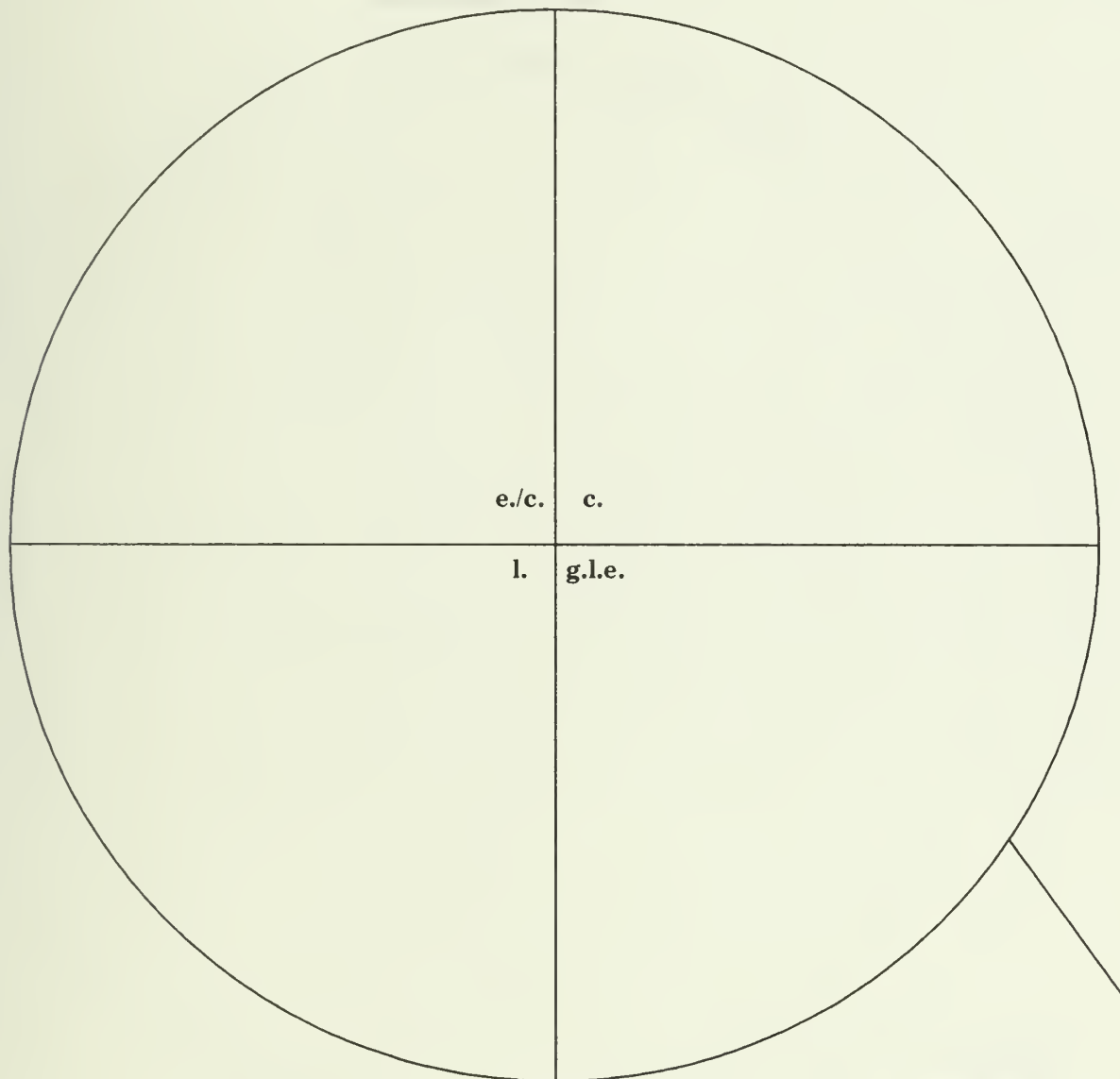
Educational Project:



STEP ONE - DETAILED IDEA SHEET

Educational Project:

Objectives



STEP ONE - DETAILED IDEA SHEET

Educational Project:

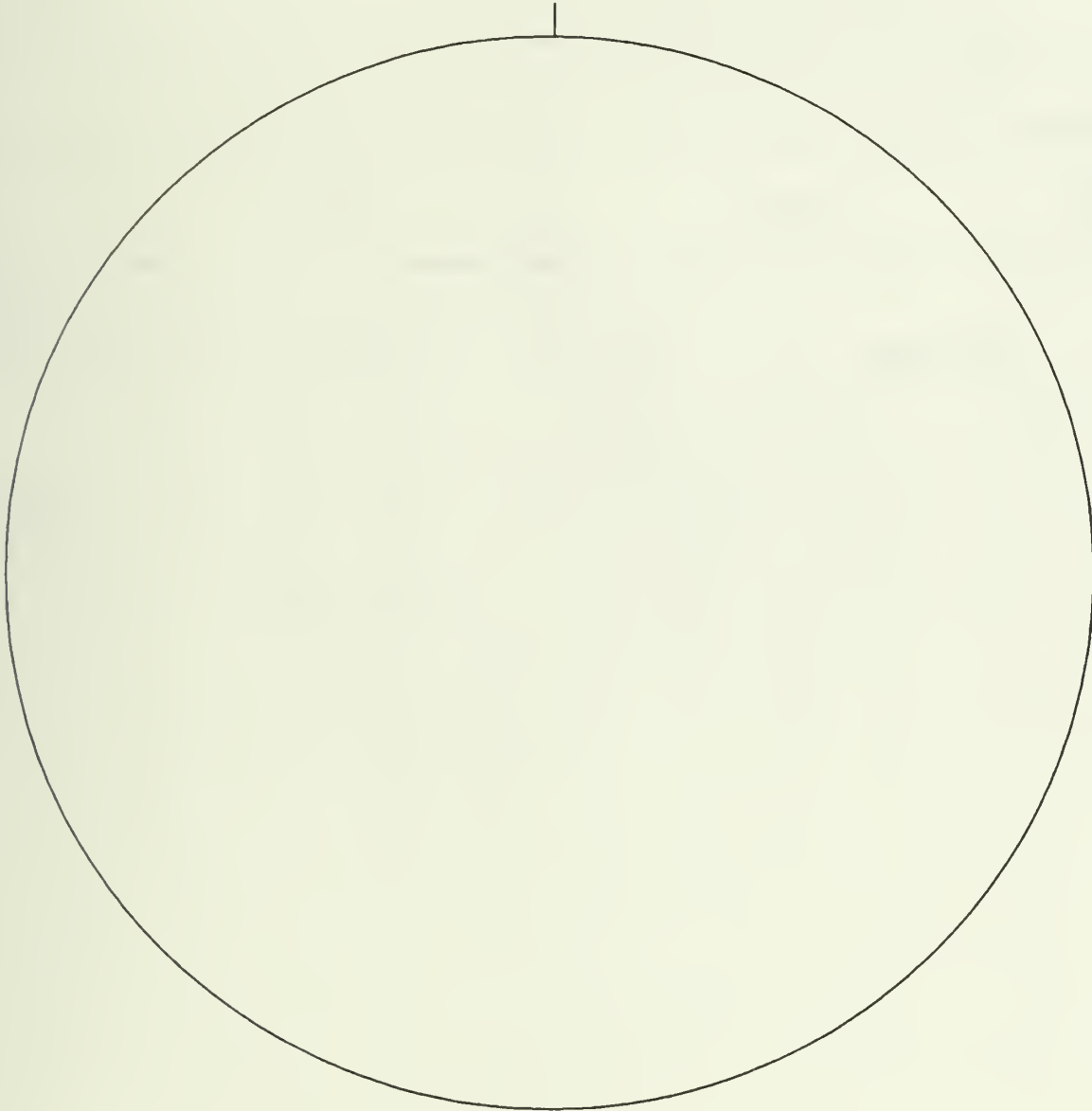
Learning
Resources

Field(s) of
Experience

STEP ONE - DETAILED IDEA SHEET

Educational Project:

Major
Activities



STEP THREE - DAILY LESSON PLAN

LESSON No.: _____

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: _____

RESOURCE(S): _____

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction			
Activities/ Mini-tasks			
Closure			

DAILY LESSON PLAN

DATE: _____

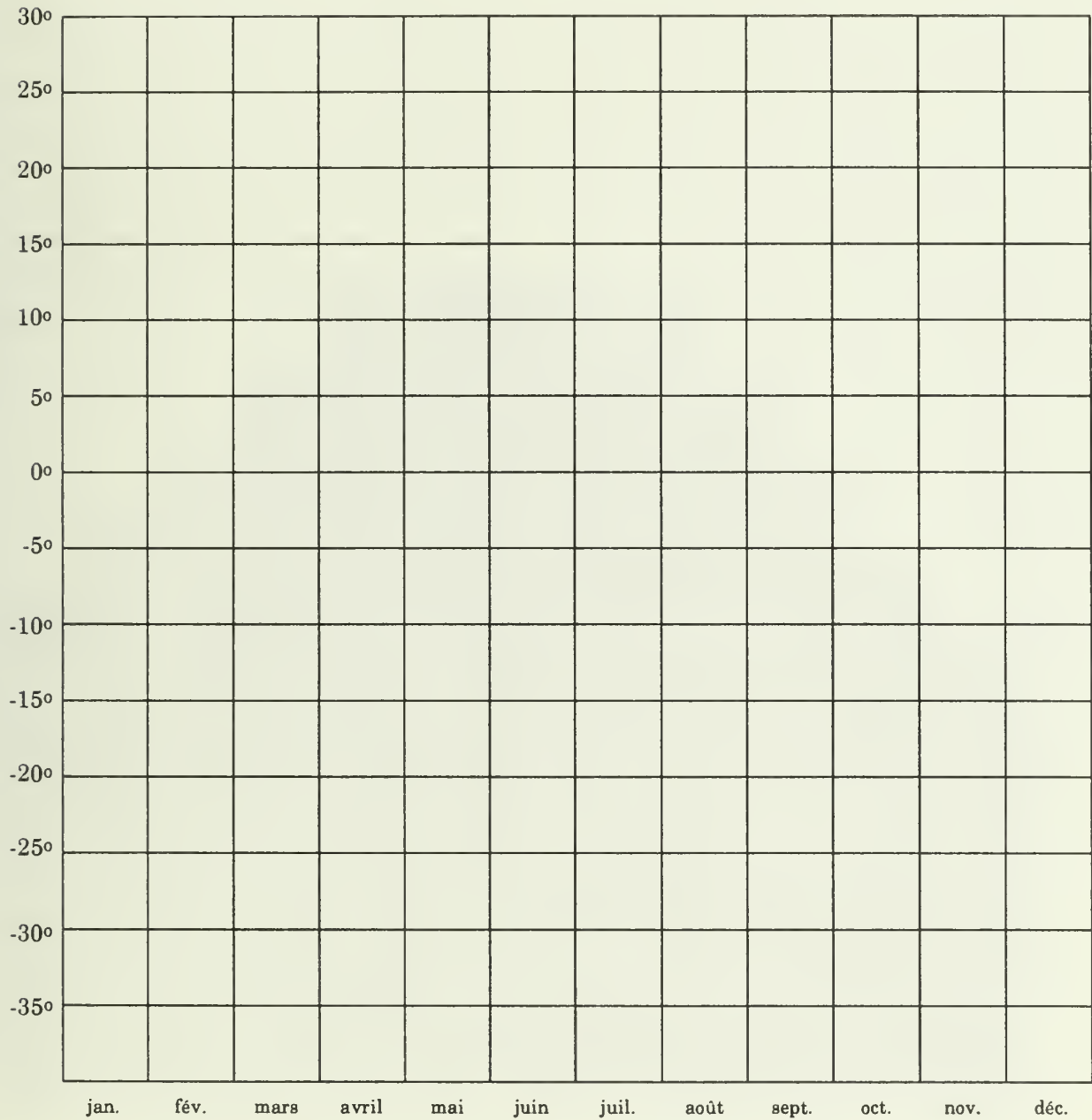
OBJECTIVES: e./c. _____
c. _____
l. _____
g.l.e. _____

Steps	Resource(s)	Time Allotted
Introduction:		
Activities:		
Closure:		

CLIMATOGRAMME

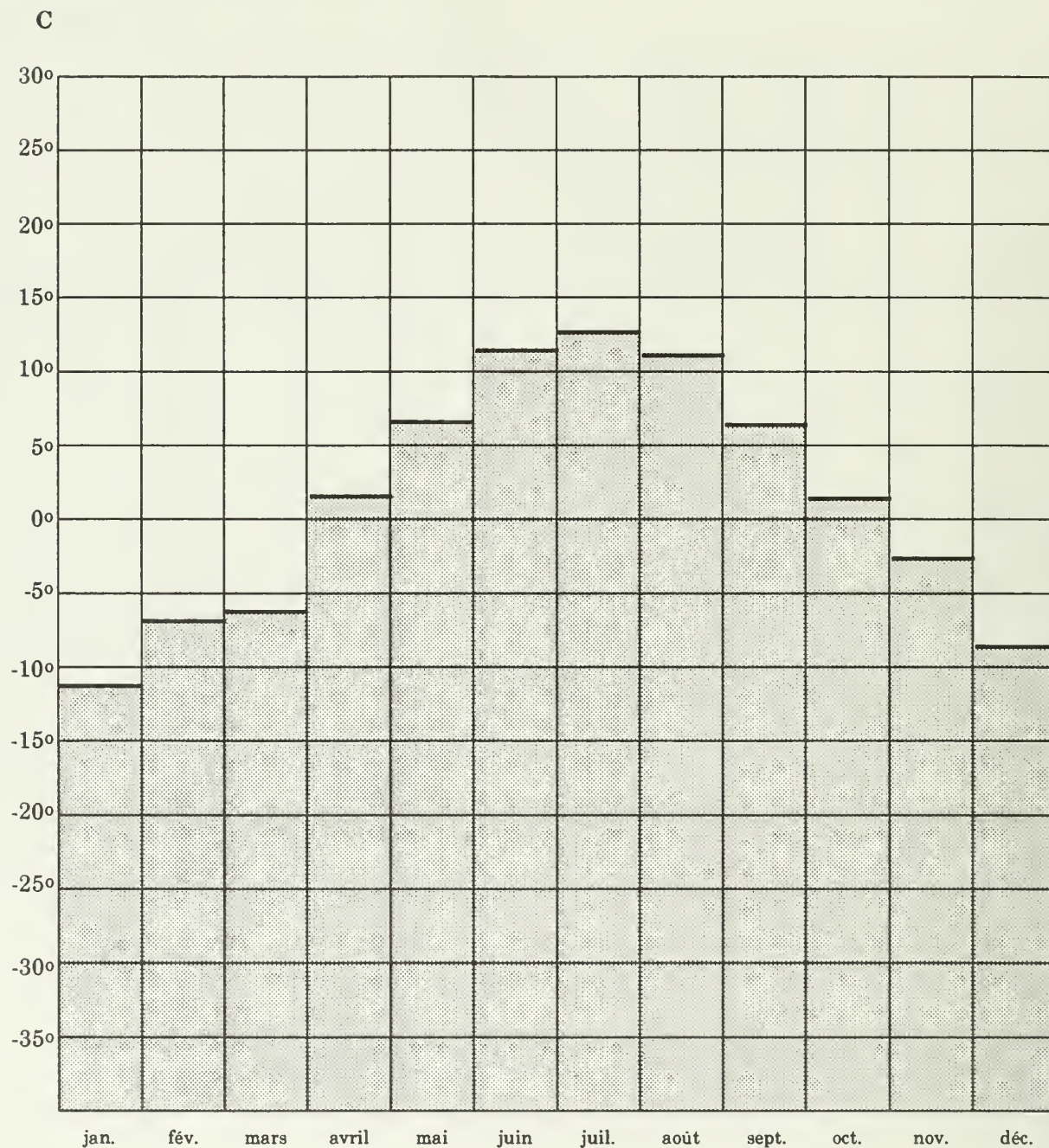
pour _____

C



CLIMATOGRAMME

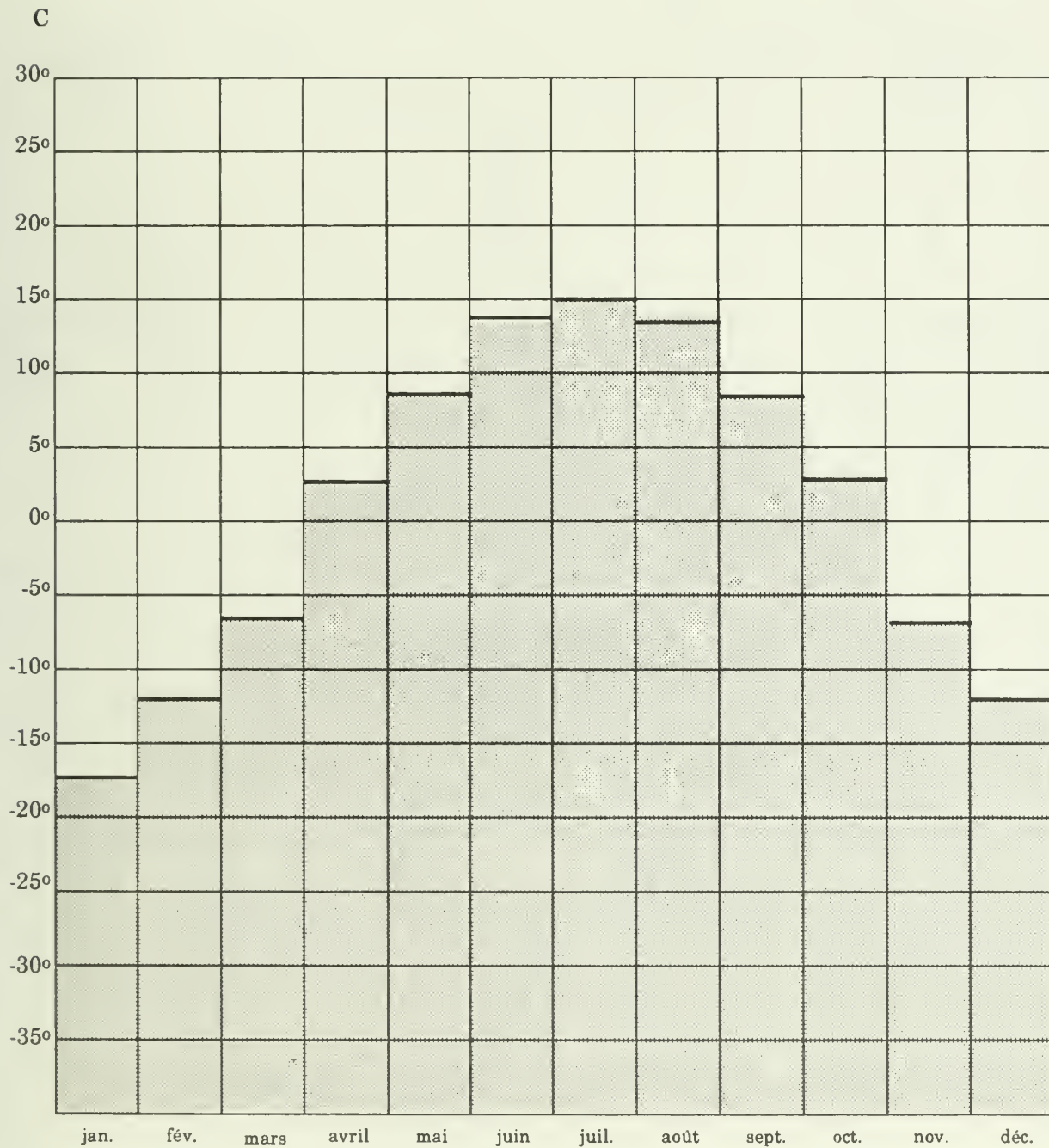
pour Calgary*



*Les températures moyennes entre 1951-1980. Renseignements reçus d'Environnement Canada, le 22 juin 1990.

CLIMATOGRAMME

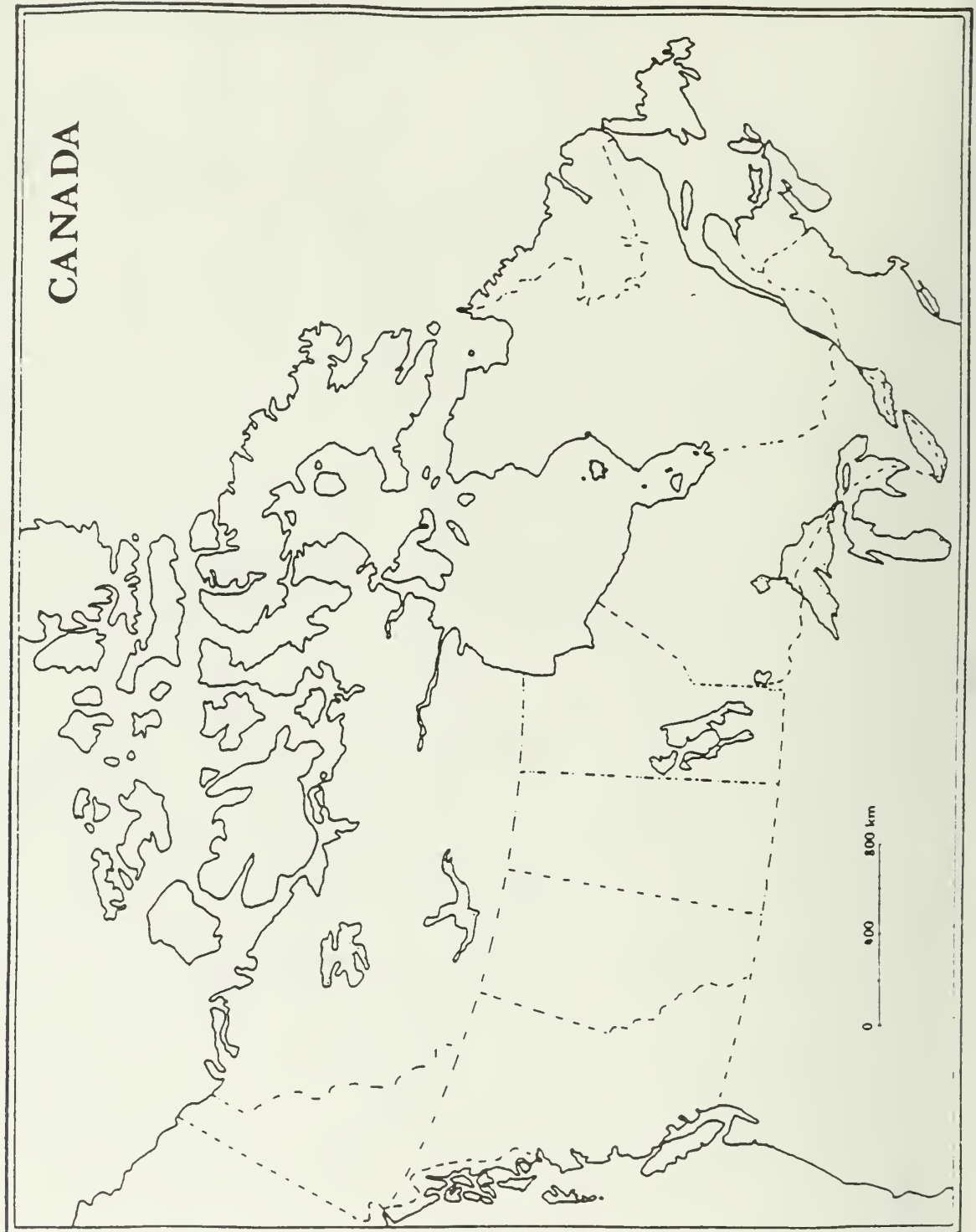
pour Edmonton*



*Les températures moyennes entre 1951-1980. Renseignements reçus d'Environnement Canada, le 22 juin 1990.







Grille pour un bulletin de météo (évaluation de la compréhension orale par l'apprenant)

NOM : _____

DATE : _____

Nom de l'élève qui présente :	Nom des villes :	Températures maximales :	Températures minimales :	Symboles météorologiques :
	1.			
	2.			
	3.			
	4.			
	5.			
	1.			
	2.			
	3.			
	4.			
	5.			
	1.			
	2.			
	3.			
	4.			
	5.			
	1.			
	2.			
	3.			
	4.			
	5.			

Appendix B: Weather Symbol Flashcards



ENSOLEILLÉ



PARTIELLEMENT ENSOLEILLÉ



NUAGEUX



AVERSES



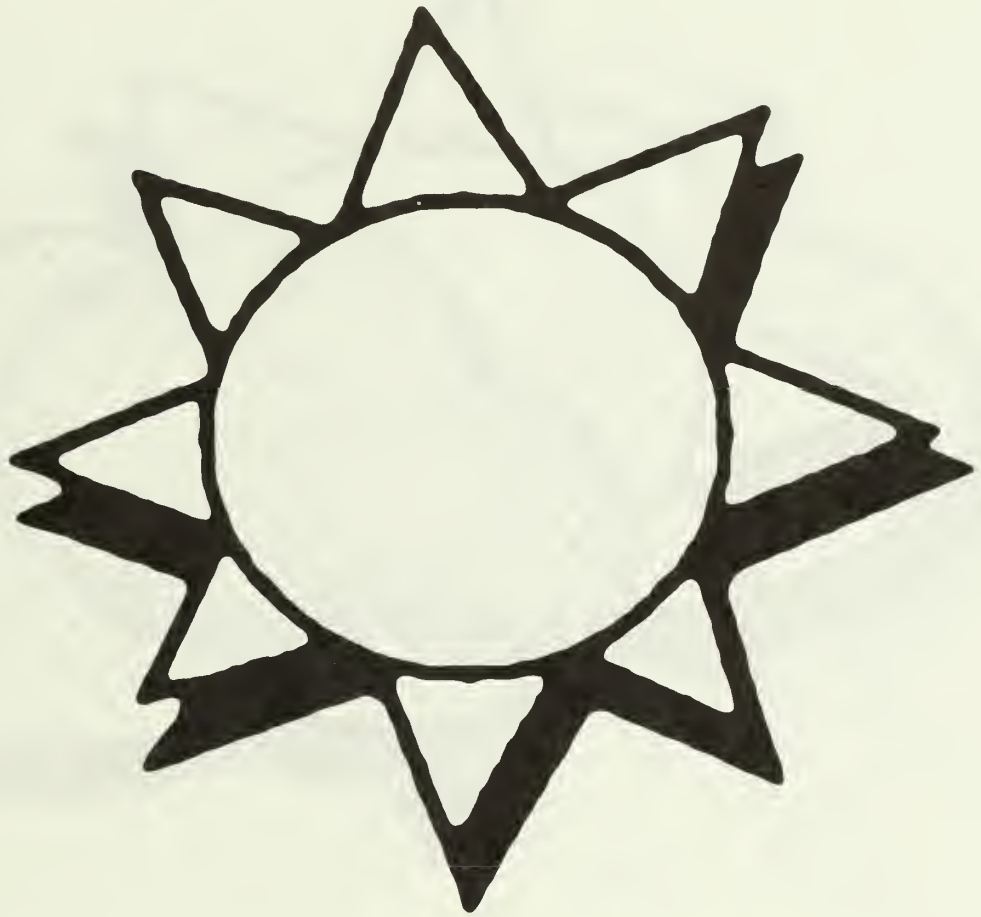
ORAGES



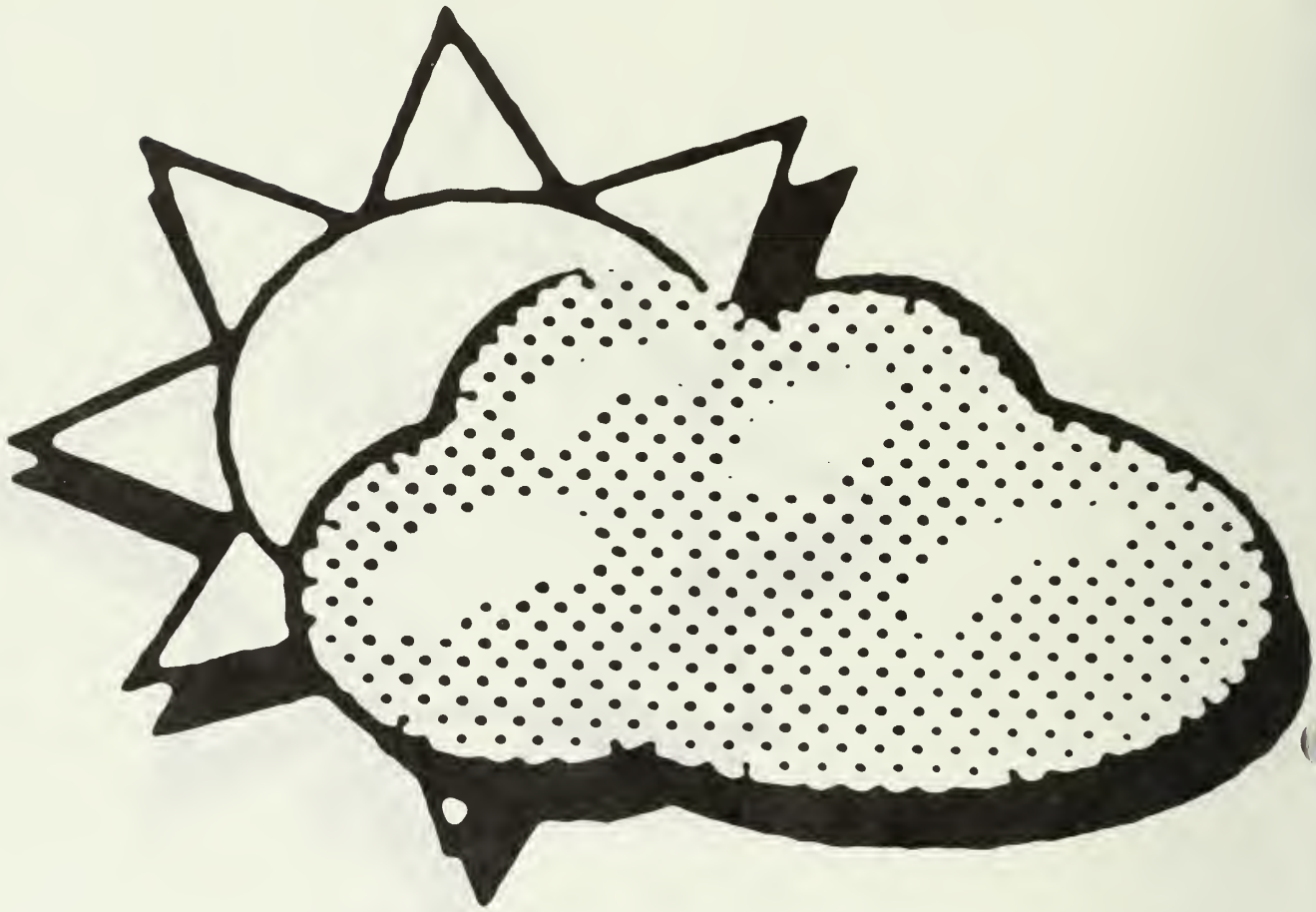
PLUIE



NEIGE



ENSOLEILLÉ



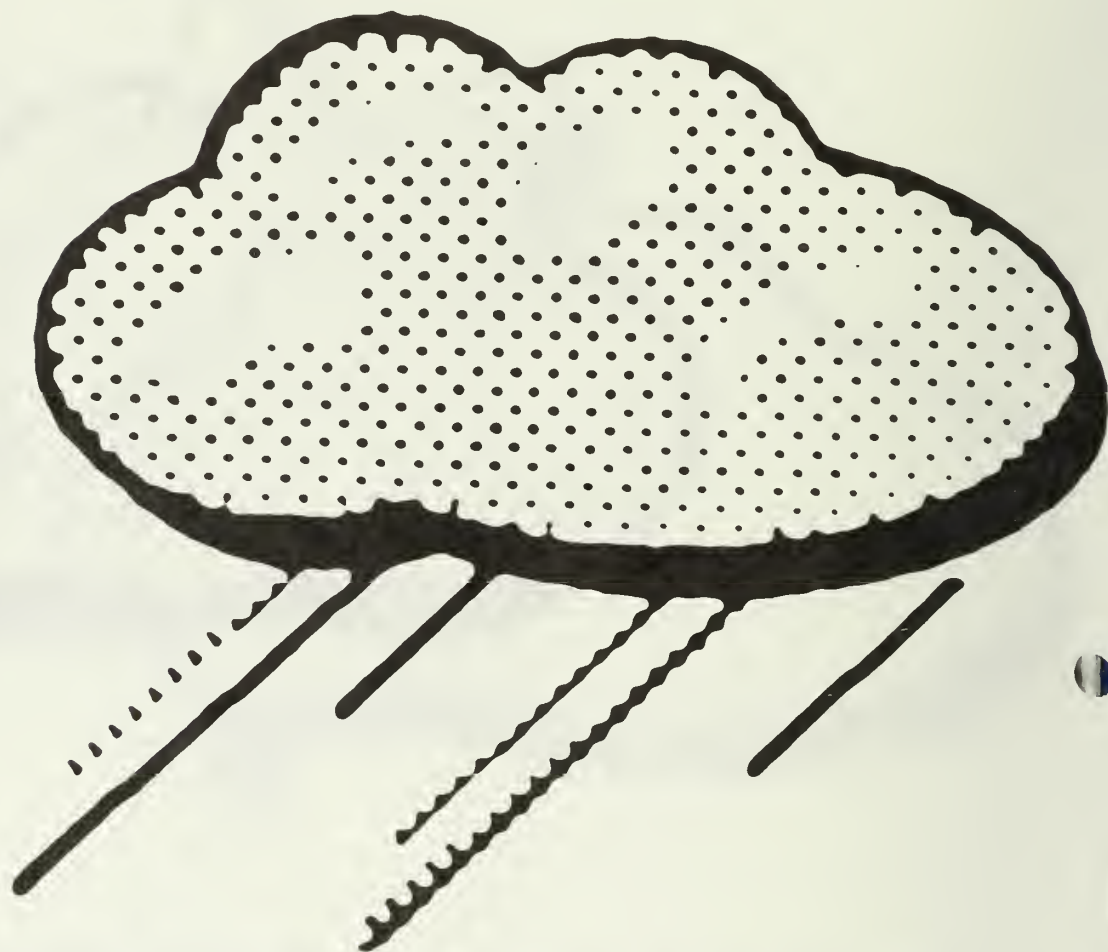
**PARTIELLEMENT
ENSOLEILLÉ**

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NUAGEUX

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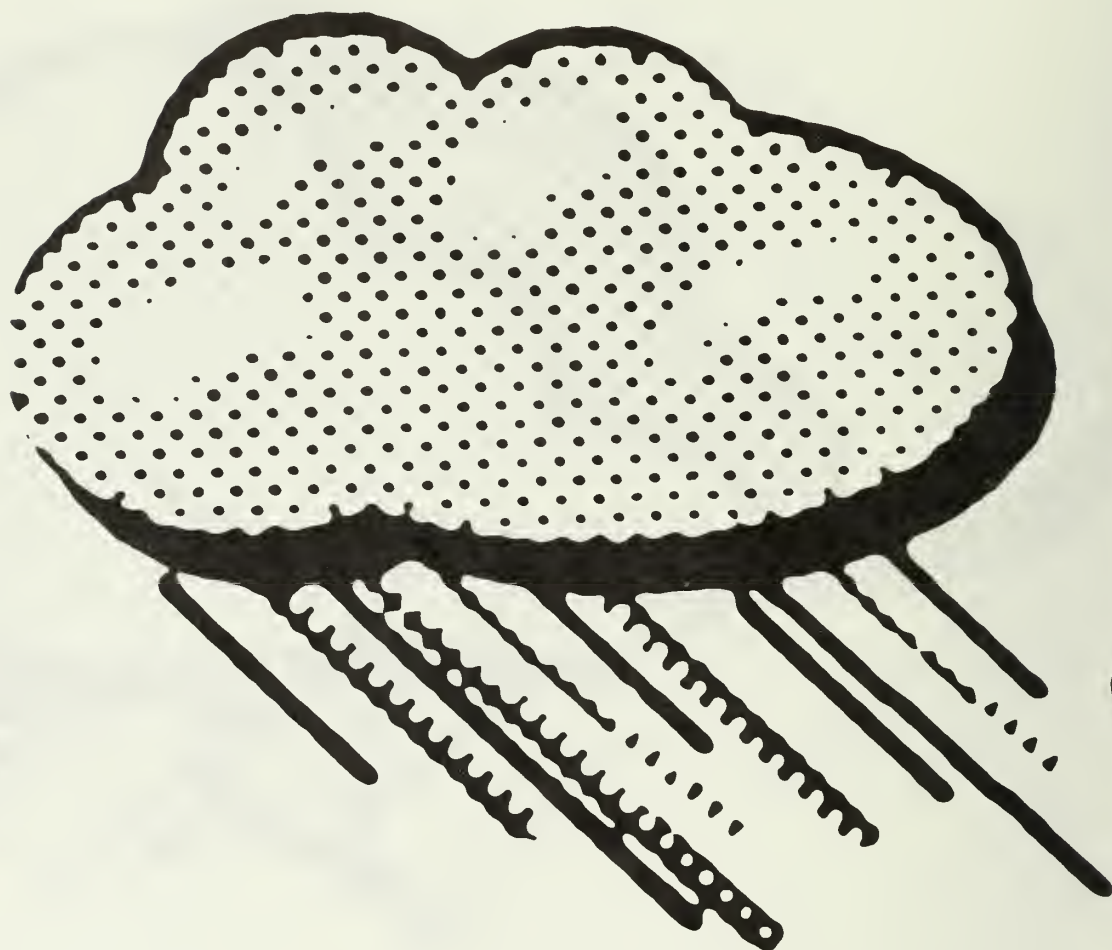
AVERSES

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ORAGES

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PLUIE

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NEIGE



Handwritten text, likely a signature or name, written in a cursive or script style. The text is very faint and difficult to decipher.

1913

Appendix C: Suggestions for Educational Projects

Introduction

The purpose of this section is to provide teachers with suggestions for the development of educational projects for each field of experience prescribed in the program of studies. Although the fields of experience are prescribed, the creation of educational projects as a means of attaining the learning expectations is only suggested. The final responsibility as to the choice of learning/teaching activities is up to the teacher who must keep in mind the students, resources and time allotted to the program when planning such activities.

To provide teachers with some direction as to the kinds of activities that can be carried out, one educational project has been chosen from each sublevel in which activities for each of the four components are described. Teachers are reminded that these activities are only suggestions and that no attempt has been made to create completed projects as this will depend on available teaching resources and individual planning styles and needs.

Beginning Level

BEGINNING 1

Field of Experience:	Suggested Educational Projects:
School	• Visit a school. • Prepare a back-to-school handbook. • Design the perfect school. • Design a school for the year 2000. • Get to know your classroom.
People Around Us	• Prepare a family tree. • Prepare a family album. • Prepare a sociogramme of the people around oneself.
Weather	• Prepare a weather forecast for radio and/or television. • Prepare a September climate report for all the Canadian provinces. • Prepare a seasonal calendar.
Animals	• Visit the zoo (the farm). • Have an animal competition (a circus). • Prepare a visit to the mountains (the forest). • Prepare an album of animal families. • Visit a biology class.
Holidays and Celebrations	• Prepare a “réveillon”. • Celebrate St. Valentine's Day. • Prepare a calendar of holidays and special events. • Organize a surprise party for someone.

BEGINNING 1

Educational Project Chosen:

Visit to a School

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Tour the school following oral or written instructions.
- Design a school plan following oral instructions.
- Make an oral presentation of rooms of the school and who works in each.
- Visit a school (the students' school, an immersion or francophone school).
- Be a guide for a school visit by a parent or a peer.

Culture

- Identify people who speak French in the school.
- Identify francophone schools in the region.
- Identify things representative of francophone cultures in the classroom (e.g., Quebec flag, French dictionary, etc.).

Language

- Name the objects in the classroom.
- Name the rooms in the school.
- Use "voici/voilà", numbers and names of people.
- Number the rooms in the school.

General Language Education

- Play a competition memory game using flashcards and a Total Physical Response technique.
- Listen to a story and circle the familiar words on a worksheet prepared by the teacher.
- Sing the alphabet.
- Show where objects are in the classroom.
- Pick out the key words needed to follow directions.

BEGINNING 2

Field of Experience:

Suggested Educational Projects:

Community

- Visit downtown.
- Prepare a sociogram of the people in one's town.
- Prepare the street plan for one's community.

Clothing

- Present a fashion show.
- Prepare a fashion magazine for a season, for school, etc.
- Prepare a clothing guide for special occasions.

Exercise

- Prepare an aerobics class.
- Learn how to play a sport.
- Learn a folk dance.

Food

- Go to a restaurant.
- Go on a grocery shopping trip.
- Prepare a picnic.
- Prepare a Canadian Food Guide.

Housing

- Prepare a house or bedroom plan.
- Plan an apartment building.
- Prepare a report on the different types of housing in Canada.

BEGINNING 2

Educational Project Chosen:

Present a Fashion Show

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Look at fashion magazines, store catalogues.
- Guess the identity of someone by their clothing description.
- Role-play the purchase of an item at a store.
- Have a flea market.
- Describe the clothing one would wear depending upon the season, the weather, etc.
- Present a model wearing the fashion to be described (e.g., a person, doll, puppet, picture).

Culture

- Look at francophone fashion magazines.
- Identify stores/boutiques in the region that have French names.
- Identify names of francophone couturiers.
- Read bilingual clothing labels.

Language

- Name clothing items.
- Number on a worksheet the clothing items identified.
- Use colours to describe clothing.
- Understand and use the verb “porter” with clothing.
- Use weather expressions with clothing.
- Name the clothing items one sees, is wearing, etc.

General Language Education

- Identify clothing words that are borrowed from other languages.
- Underline or point out cognates in a communication.
- Reply voluntarily to questions (e.g., “Qu'est-ce qu'il porte?/Qu'est-ce qu'on porte quand il fait froid?”).
- Prepare a clothing dictionary.
- Pinpoint the key words in an oral and/or written communication regarding a task to be accomplished.

BEGINNING 3

Field of Experience:

Suggested Educational Projects:

Activities

- Create a social game.
- Prepare a survey of favorite hobbies.
- Prepare a guide of daily routines.

Vacations

- Prepare a “What to do and what not to do” guide for travelers.
- Make plans to take a trip.
- Plan a tour of a (francophone) city.
- Prepare a tourist brochure.

Fine Arts

- Make a “ceinture fléchée”.
- Have a fine arts fair.
- Create a song or a story.
- Present a play or a skit.

Trades and Professions

- Role-play a Careers Day.
- Visit the doctor, dentist...
- Create a telephone directory for the trades and professions in the community.
- Give a babysitting course.

Hygiene and Safety

- Prepare a brochure on how to care for a person with a cold.
- Prepare and take a driving or bicycle course.
- Prepare and follow a diet to be physically fit.
- Prepare an emergency safety plan for the house, school, etc.

BEGINNING 3

Educational Project Chosen:

Prepare and Take a Bicycle Course

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/Culture

- Take a bicycle ride.
- Role-play the purchase of a bicycle.
- Describe the road rules.
- Describe your bicycle.
- On a map, trace the directions given by someone.
- Understand and describe how to use a bicycle.
- Understand and describe where one hurts after falling off a bicycle.

Culture

- Name where one finds bilingual road signs.
- Point out the use of bicycles as a means of transportation or sporting activity for a variety of francophone regions.
- Observe who uses bicycles and where.
- Identify francophone cycling competitions.

Language

- Understand road symbols and use them.
- Provide the appropriate sign/signal for instructions given by the teacher.
- Name the parts of the body.
- Use the expression “avoir mal...”.

General Language Education

- Find another word using a word from the same family (e.g., pédale = pédaler; bicyclette = cycliste; vite = vitesse).
- Understand the meaning of an unknown word using a known/familiar word (e.g., arrêter = arrêt).
- Voluntarily give an original description of one's bicycle.
- After seeing a video or reading an article, identify the road symbols.

Intermediate Level

INTERMEDIATE 4

Field of Experience:	Suggested Educational Projects:
Health and Exercise	• Create a new sport. • Prepare a health guide for one's parents. • Organize a "Participation" or "Canada Fitness Day" for the school.
Holidays and Celebrations	• Organize a mini-Heritage Day. • Organize a winter carnival. • Prepare activities for "Family Day" (an Albertan provincial holiday celebrated in February). • Organize a party to celebrate "Cabane à sucre".
Clubs and Associations	• Prepare a guide of school clubs and associations. • Create a club based on one's favorite hobby. • Create a telephone directory which describes the youth clubs/associations of the city/town.
Shopping	• Design a new shopping centre. • Prepare a sale campaign for a store. • Prepare a report on shopping in the year 2000.
Senses and Feelings	• Prepare experiments in which one discovers the importance of the senses. • Role-play the life of a blind person, a deaf person. • Prepare an interview with an extra-terrestrial.

INTERMEDIATE 4

**Educational Project
Chosen:**

Prepare Experiments in Which One Discovers the Importance of the Senses

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/
Communication

- Prepare an experiment in which one tastes different powders.
- Interview and tape the reactions of the students.
- Guess the known/unknown objects while blindfolded.
- Listen to a short television clip without the picture and describe the experience.
- Smell different perfumes, describing the image it conjures up.
- Write a poem about senses/feelings.
- Follow someone's directions while being blindfolded.
- Survey people's preferred tastes (e.g., sweet/sour, spicy/bland).

Culture

- Research the pictures/images of different perfumes and compare their presentations.
- Look at different anglophone and francophone magazines like *Châteline* and discuss the similarities and/or differences.
- Listen to a French "rock" song and an English "rock" song and describe the similarities and/or differences in sound.
- Taste pulled maple syrup with or without a pickle.

Language

- Identify sound effects orally or in written form.
- Prepare a questionnaire using inversion questions.
- Review the use of the imperative.
- Find the appropriate verbs to describe likes/dislikes.

General Language
Education

- Play charades.
- Read a text and underline the key words or listen to an announcement and write down the key words.
- Repeat tongue-twisters like "Six cent soixante-six saucissons secs sautent."
- Identify the elements needed to develop a questionnaire.

INTERMEDIATE 5

Field of Experience:	Suggested Educational Projects:
Close Friends	• Create an advice club. • Prepare a guide for choosing friends. • Prepare a radio/television program that addresses problems between friends.
Fashion	• Create a fashion magazine for the school. • Plan a fashion show with fashions from the past, present and future. • Create a fashion consultancy.
Social Life	• Plan a school dance. • Prepare a dating guide. • Create a magazine for different groups in the school based on their beliefs, music, clothing, etc.
Outdoor Activities	• Plan or prepare a camping/fishing/hunting trip. • Prepare an outdoor tour. • Prepare a guide for survival in the wild.
Advertising	• Prepare a school newspaper. • Prepare a news broadcast (current events, sports, weather, commercials). • Prepare a television show (e.g., televised game show) with commercials.

INTERMEDIATE 5

Educational Project Chosen:

Create an Advice Club

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Role-play an interview between a counsellor and a client.
- Brainstorm common student problems.
- Pull a problem from a box and, in pairs, find a solution.
- Write a letter to Ann Landers.
- Play a problem/solution matching game.

Culture

- Identify where francophones can get counselling in French.
- Research the activities of the “Association Francophonie Jeunesse de l'Alberta”.
- Research other francophone youth clubs at the national level.
- Based on the information obtained from these organizations, discuss the similarities and differences between the students and their francophone counterparts.

Language

- Answer another's questions in the present tense.
- Write a letter using sentence cohesion markers.
- Use the superlative to express one's problem.
- Review all question types.

General Language Education

- Use a dictionary to find the correct meaning of a word.
- Create a mini-dictionary of key words.
- Read “The Letter of the Month” (Vidéo-presse) and underline the key words of the problem.
- Use peer-editing techniques.
- Find the rules for writing a simple letter in French.

INTERMEDIATE 6

Field of Experience:

Suggested Educational Projects:

The World of Work

- Prepare a guide for living in today's society.
- Create a business.
- Prepare a guide for finding a job.

Trips and Excursions

- Plan a class trip.
- Plan a travel fair.
- Prepare a guide for traveling to...

Money

- Prepare a budget for today's teenagers.
- Prepare a video of bank transactions.
- Prepare a school fund-raising project.
- Organize a flea market.

Government

- Prepare and simulate an election.
- Create a new government ministry.
- Create a government for a new country.

Conservation and the Environment

- Prepare a brochure on recycling.
- Prepare a campaign against pollution.
- Prepare an energy conservation guide for everyday use.

INTERMEDIATE 6

Educational Project Chosen:

Prepare and Simulate an Election

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Listen to a speech or parts of an electoral speech.
- Find and read electoral publicity from candidates and their parties.
- Prepare campaign publicity such as commercials, posters, placards, buttons.
- Prepare and give a speech.
- Write a brief summary of the election results for a newspaper.
- Present the results orally.

Culture

- Research the names of presidents or heads of state and their parties for different francophone countries.
- Research when these countries have their elections.
- Research the differences and/or similarities between a Canadian and a French election.
- Draw up a list of similarities or differences between Canadian and French governmental positions.

Language

- Develop questions to ask the candidates, using the appropriate tense.
- Understand and use the “passé composé” orally and in written form.
- Understand and use the “imparfait” orally and in written form.
- Change contextualized sentences from the present to the past.

General Language Education

- Use synonym and other dictionaries to write a speech.
- Create a dictionary of words and expressions that are synonyms.
- Anticipate the kinds of elements one would find in a political party's electoral brochure by brainstorming and then verifying them.
- Practise one's speech in a team to receive feedback and to evaluate its delivery.
- Make hypotheses on the key points of a political speech.

Advanced Level

ADVANCED 7

Field of Experience:	Suggested Educational Projects:
Challenges for the Future	• Give a career counselling course. • Prepare a report on future careers and professions. • Plan a career.
Leisure Activities	• Create a mini-Olympics of Canadian leisure activities. • Create a stress reduction guide. • Create a guide describing free leisure activities in the town/city or area.
Food and Drink in Francophone Countries	• Research and prepare a meal representative of a francophone country. • Create a recipe book, etc., for a francophone country. • Prepare a food fair for a number of francophone countries. • Organize and prepare a francophone potluck supper for the end of the year.
Legends and Myths	• Create a francophone legend or myth. • Write a legend or myth for immersion students. • Present a legend or myth in a format other than written.
The Sciences	• Organize a science fair. • Prepare a brochure on life in the year 2040. • Prepare and present a debate on medical advances (e.g., ethics in medicine).

ADVANCED 7

Educational Project Chosen:

Plan a Career

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Invite a person to talk about his/her career.
- Invite university registrar people.
- Survey fellow students' career intentions.
- Look at university calendars from Quebec universities or colleges and the Faculté Saint-Jean.
- Consult the career and professions section of a francophone journal.
- Take an aptitude test.
- Play a career and professions game.
- Write a comparison between a job from the past and one today.
- Debate which careers will be the most important in ten years.

Culture

- Research the careers of the francophone world which have contributed to our society from the past and present.
- Discuss the influence of the petroleum industry on Alberta compared to the influence of hydro-electricity on Quebec from the professions' and careers' viewpoint.
- Analyse the influence of geography on professions and careers.
- Analyse the value of being bilingual to obtain a job.

Language

- Play "Si j'étais ..., je ..." (conditional).
- Play "Qui suis-je?", give a definition and guess the career (emphasis on "qui/que").
- Enrich a series of simple sentences using cohesive elements.
- Understand the present subjunctive.

General Language Education

- After having read a job offer, analyse the components and presentation rules and use this information to understand job offers in French.
- Look at an article on unemployment and anticipate the message using the heading, illustrations/photos, then verify.
- Determine what information is important in a police investigation (game) to find out who is guilty of murder after hearing testimony from a number of witnesses/suspects (doctor, electrician, carpenter).
- Use one's knowledge of grammar rules to improve communication in a debate.

ADVANCED 8

Field of Experience:

Suggested Educational Projects:

The Role of the Media

- Research the role of the media.
- Explore how a topic is treated by different media.
- Organize an awards night for school or the movies.

The Future of the World

- Prepare a public hearing on the subject of nuclear arms.
- Prepare a defense on a controversial topic.
- Outline a view of family life in the year 2010.

The Arts

- Create a play.
- Write or read a novel.
- Create a soap opera.
- Create a cartoon.

Adolescents and the Law

- Simulate a hearing.
- Organize a campaign against drunk driving.
- Give a law course.

Characters and Personalities

- Analyse a celebrity's profile.
- Prepare a guide for the perfect principal.
- Evaluate one's own personality.

ADVANCED 8

Educational Project Chosen:

Write a Novel

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Invite a writer to give a talk.
- Organize a writers' conference.
- Role-play the role of a character in a book.
- Change some characteristics of a novel, e.g., the ending.
- Discuss different types of novels.

Culture

- Create a francophone character in the story.
- Create a francophone context/situation.
- Include francophone events in the story.

Language

- Describe events in the past.
- Create dialogues in order to use pronouns.
- Use the appropriate rules for dividing words.
- Structure one's discourse.
- Use the rule of agreement.
- Use the passive voice in the novel.

General Language Education

- Role-play a "Reader's Theatre".
- Deduce the agreement rule in the past tense based on a reading.
- Deduce the elements of a French novel.
- Identify cohesion markers between two or three paragraphs of a French novel.

ADVANCED 9

Field of Experience:	Suggested Educational Projects:
The Economy	• Invest in the stock market. • Create a new monetary system. • Create a businessman's club. • Prepare a report on lotteries.
Living Alone	• Prepare an action plan for renting an apartment. • Organize a consultation agency for people wanting to move out. • Create a series of television programs on the theme of "moving out".
Graduation	• Organize a graduation evening. • Prepare an album of graduands. • Create a video on the preparations needed for a graduation.
Politics	• Create a new political party. • Simulate the life of a politician. • Debate the influence of politics on the daily life of people, e.g., apartheid in South Africa, free trade in Canada, religion in Ireland.
Ecology, Energy and Industry	• Simulate a demonstration against industrial pollution. • Create a Citizen's Action Bureau against pollution. • Create an industry which conserves energy and preserves the environment.

ADVANCED 9

Educational Project Chosen:

Create a Series of Television Programs on the Theme of “Moving Out”

Component

Suggested Activities

Experience/ Communication

- Brainstorm things that are important to know about moving out.
- Listen to an interview between a landlord and a potential renter.
- Role-play an interview for renting an apartment.
- Debate the pros and cons of living alone (moving out).
- Prepare a television program based on the group's beliefs on “moving out”.
- Make a budget for one month.
- Role-play the day in the life of a person living alone.

Culture

- Read the classified ads for renting an apartment in Montreal or other francophone communities.
- Research the beliefs of different francophone societies with regard to living alone.

Language

- Refine one's discourse using knowledge of the language.
- Identify the current language expressions used in this context.
- Do refinement exercises based on the students' needs.

General Language Education

- Research facts to defend one's point of view.
- Find situations in which French can be used while doing research.

Appendix D: Examples of Educational Projects

At the present time of printing, only educational projects at the **Beginning** level are available. Educational projects at the **Intermediate** and **Advanced** levels will be developed as these levels are approved and corresponding resources are identified.

Sample Unit: Beginning Level – Grade 4 Entry Point

LEVEL: Beginning

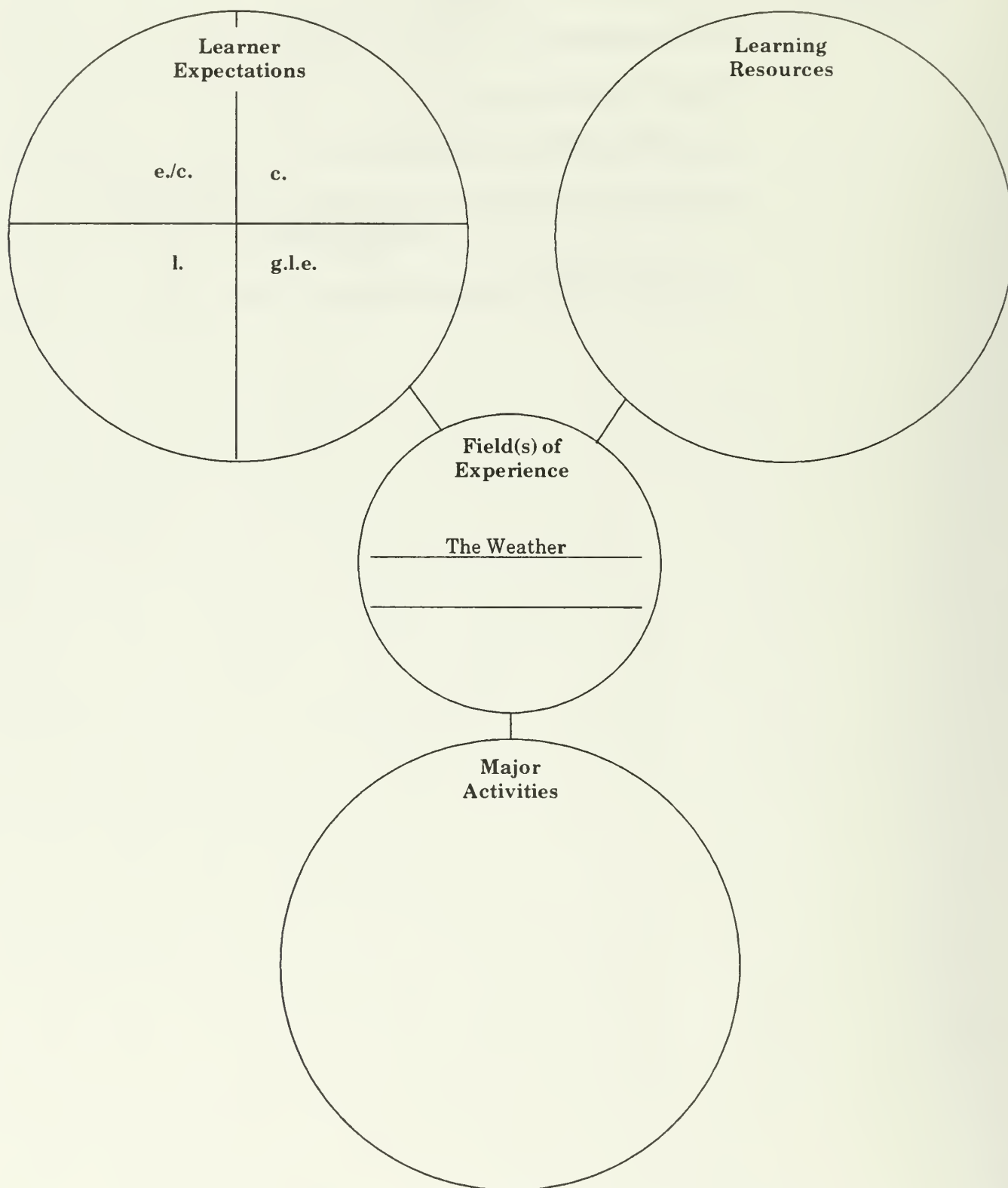
SUBLEVEL: Beginning 1

FIELD OF EXPERIENCE: The Weather

EDUCATIONAL PROJECT: Presentation of a weather forecast for
television and radio

ALLOTED TIME: 8 lessons at 30 minutes per lesson

Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Forecast for Television



Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Forecast for Television (cont'd)

**Learner
Expectations**

e./c. To understand and produce an oral weather forecast (based on a predetermined season).

c. To identify French-speaking regions in the province.

l. To understand and use weather expressions, numbers as temperatures, the seasons, dates and other necessary vocabulary related to weather.

g.l.e. To associate weather expressions with their appropriate meteorological symbols.

To articulate voluntarily statements that are presented.

Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Forecast for Television (cont'd)

**Learning
Resources**

- Bienvenue – Étape 7
- Ici la France – Component 4
- blank maps of Alberta
- a televised weather program from Radio-Canada
- À la Radio – Unité 3
- climatogram
- flash cards for weather expressions, the seasons, words and activities

**Field(s) of
Experience**

The Weather

Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Forecast for Television (cont'd)

**Major
Activities**

- present a weather forecast
- learn the weather expressions
- prepare a climatogram of annual mean temperatures for one's area
- identify location of French-speaking communities on a map of Alberta

Activity No.: 1

DESCRIPTION: Learning of the weather expressions orally.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand the weather expressions.

c.

l. To understand and use the weather expressions and numbers as temperatures.

g.l.e. To associate the weather expressions with their corresponding meteorological symbols.

RESOURCE(S): weather expression flash cards, activity flash cards, À la Radio kit

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P	R.C.	W.E.
1. present the weather expressions			X		X			
2. play a memory game with the weather expressions			X	X	X			
3. review the numbers through the use of mathematical problems			X		X	X		
4. give the appropriate weather expression depending on the meteorological symbol/illustration or the temperature			X		X	X		
5. give the minimum/maximum temperature depending on the weather expression	X		X		X	X		

Activity No.: 2

DESCRIPTION: Preparation of a climatogram for the year of the average temperatures for the place where one lives.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand and predict temperatures for each month.

c. _____

l. To understand and use temperatures and months of the year.

g.l.e. To associate average temperatures with the months of the year.

RESOURCE(S): climatogram worksheet

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P.	R.C.	W.E.
1. present the months of the year			X		X			
2. play a memory game with the months			X	X	X	X		
3. predict the average temperatures for one's town or city	X			X	X	X		
4. fill in the climatogram based on the students' predictions				X			X	X

Activity No.: 4

DESCRIPTION: Oral presentation of a weather forecast.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand and produce orally a weather forecast based on a predetermined season.

c. By identifying five French-speaking areas in the province.

l. By using three weather expressions correctly with the appropriate temperatures based on the date chosen.

g.l.e. By associating these weather expressions with the correct meteorological symbols.

RESOURCE(S): weather broadcast from Radio-Canada, Bienvenue 2 – Étape 7, Ici la France – Component 4

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P.	R.C.	W.E.
1. listen to a Radio-Canada television broadcast and determine the weather forecast	X		X		X			
2. determine the elements of an authentic television weather broadcast	X		X			X		
3. prepare an oral weather forecast	X	X	X	X		X		
4. present an oral weather forecast	X	X	X	X		X		
5. understand fellow students' weather forecasts	X	X	X	X	X			

Lesson No.: 1

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 1

RESOURCE(S): activity flash cards

flash cards for different seasons

weather expression flash cards

worksheet

addition/subtraction flash cards

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	Problem solving: the teacher shows an activity flash card and asks the students if it is possible or not to carry out the activity based on the weather flash card shown E.g.: Activity – skiing – flash card of the weather. - L'été quand il fait du soleil. - L'automne quand il pleut. - L'hiver quand il neige. - etc.	reply "oui/non"	5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- presents weather expressions for the memory game - gives the students a worksheet and presents the weather expressions - gives mathematical problems orally (+, -) - shows addition/subtraction flash card	- match the illustrations to the weather expressions presented orally - match the expressions by numbering the responses - give the answers to the problems - play "Tour Around the World"	10 mins. 5 mins. 3 mins. 5 mins.
Closure	asks questions like: "Est-ce qu'il est possible de faire du ski quand il fait chaud?"	answer the questions	2 mins.

**To play, a student competes against another to see who comes up with the correct answer the quickest. (The goal – speed.)*

Lesson No.: 2

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 1

RESOURCE(S): À la radio – Unité 3
weather expression flash cards

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- shows a few thermometers on the blackboard by saying for example: "Il fait 20 °C. Il fait chaud., etc." - asks the question: "C'est vrai ou faux?"	answer "vrai/faux"	5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	gives situations like: "S'il fait _ °C, quel temps fait-il?" to review vocabulary	answer the questions with the teacher's help	7 mins.
	gives students Activity F (À la radio) worksheet	write down the temperatures	5 mins.
	gives students Activity A (À la radio) worksheet	listen and circle the correct response	4 mins.
Closure	presents a memory game using the weather flashcards	divided into two teams, choose a flash card and provide the correct response for a point	6 mins.
	asks questions like: "À quelle température est-ce qu'il fait beau, frais, etc.?"	answer the questions	3 mins.

Lesson No.: 3

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 2

RESOURCE(S): seasons and months flash cards

climatogram worksheet*

overhead transparencies for Edmonton and Calgary climatogram**

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	shows the season flash cards saying: "C'est l'été. En été, il fait très froid. C'est vrai, n'est-ce pas?", etc.	answer "oui/non"	3 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	presents the flashcards for a memory game	match the illustrations with the expressions presented	3 mins.
	says: "C'est le printemps. Quels sont les mois du printemps?" and presents the months of the year	listen to the presentation	3 mins.
	asks questions like: "En quel mois est la Saint-Valentin?", etc. (use all kinds of celebrations)	answer the questions	5 mins.
	shows the overhead transparencies of the climatograms saying: "Voici un climatogramme de Calgary. La température moyenne pour le mois de janvier est -10 °C. Quelle est la température moyenne pour le mois de février?", etc.	answer the questions	6 mins.
Closure	asks questions like: "Ici, quelle serait la température moyenne pour le mois de janvier?" etc.	answer the questions and fill in the blank climatogram for their town or village	6 mins.
	puts the answers on the blackboard		
	says: "Ici en été, la température moyenne est -15 °C?" or "Ici en mars, la température moyenne est 4 °C?"	answer "vrai/faux" or provide the correct answer	4 mins.

*Found in Appendix A.

**Found in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 4

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 3

RESOURCE(S): Ici la France – Component 4
Bienvenue – Student book
cahier, tape, map of Alberta
blank maps of Alberta*

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- plays the video “Ici la France” without sound - asks questions like: “Quel temps fait-il ou quelle est la température?”, while replaying the video	- watch the video without sound - give oral responses to the questions	3 mins. 5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- directs students to page 49, e.g., 2 and page 50, e.g., 3 in text - shows a map of Alberta, asking the students to name the cities of the province - asks the question: “Savez-vous où sont les communautés franco-albertaines?” - gives a map to each student for writing down the names of the cities and towns mentioned	- give oral responses to questions - provide the teacher with city names - provide answers - write the names of where francophone communities are located	8 mins. 3 mins. 3 mins. 5 mins.
Closure	asks questions like: “Quelle température fait-il à Bonnyville?”, etc.	answer the questions	3 mins.

*Found in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 5

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): a television weather broadcast from Radio-Canada
Bienvenue – Student's textbook
cahier, flash cards

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- plays a television weather broadcast from Radio-Canada - asks questions like: "Quelle température fait-il à _____?"	- watch the weather broadcast - answer the questions	4 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- gives students Activity E (À la radio) worksheet - replays the Radio-Canada broadcast - asks students to turn to p. 52-53 in the student text - plays the game «télépathie»* (*Before the class begins, ask a student to step outside the classroom with you. You tell him/her that he/she has telepathy. That is, using the flash cards which will be taped onto the blackboard, between you and the student you will decide what signal you will use to determine the weather expression, you, the teacher are "thinking" about. Before you start the "transmission" of the message whisper the expression to another student to verify that the student in question does have telepathy.)	- listen and number the response which corresponds to the message - fill in pp. 40-41 of their cahier - answer questions - see if they do or do not have telepathy	3 mins. 5 mins. 10 mins. 6 mins.
Closure	asks the question: "Qu'est-ce qu'il y a dans un bulletin de météo?"	answer orally	3 mins.

Lesson No.: 6

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): a television broadcast from Radio-Canada
map of Canada

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	plays the weather forecast, asking: "Qu'est-ce que nous entendons dans un bulletin?, Quel temps fait-il à ...?"	answer the questions	6 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	uses the map of Canada and asks: "Quel temps fait-il à ...?"	answer the question (or reverse the roles: students ask question, teacher or fellow student answers)	5 mins.
	- asks a student to choose the meteorological symbols for a place in Canada and asks the question: "Quel temps fait-il à...?" - asks students to take out their map of Alberta and to choose the location of five French-speaking communities to create their own weather forecast	- ask and answer the question - prepare and practise their weather forecast with a partner	5 mins. 10 mins.
Closure	asks the questions: "Quels sont les éléments d'un bulletin?; Quels sont les symboles typiques d'un bulletin pour ...?" (saison?)	answer orally	4 mins.

Lesson No.: 7

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): weather broadcast from television
worksheet for aural comprehension testing*

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- plays the televised weather report - asks comprehension questions	watch and answer questions	5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- gives students time to practise their weather reports - watches students giving their reports	- practise with a partner - present their weather reports and fill in the worksheet with name of the town/city, minimum and maximum temperatures and the symbols used	3 mins. 20 mins.
Closure	asks the question: "De quelles villes est-ce que nous avons entendu des bulletins de météo?"	answer the question	2 mins.

*Found in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 8 *Reinvestment lesson

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): a radio weather broadcast from Radio-Canada

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	plays the weather report from radio	listen	1 min.
	replays the weather report, this time asking students to provide as much information as they can	give information	4 mins.
	ask the question: "Quelle(s) est(sont) la(les) différences entre un bulletin à la radio et à la télévision?" and puts a list of student responses on blackboard	answer the question	5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	using the list drawn up by the students, gives the criteria* for the presentation of a weather bulletin	work on their weather reports for taping at home that night by using an objectivation grid to ensure elements are there	13 mins.
		practise their reports in groups of two for feedback	5 mins.
Closure	asks the question: "Qu'est-ce que nous entendons dans un bulletin de météo à la radio?"	answer the question	2 mins.

*See the *Student Evaluation Guide* for an objectivation grid. Teacher evaluates weather reports using a criteria-based form. An example of this form is also found in the *Student Evaluation Guide*.

Sample Unit: Beginning Level – Grade 7 or 10 Entry Point

LEVEL: Beginning

SUBLEVEL: Beginning 1/2 or French 13

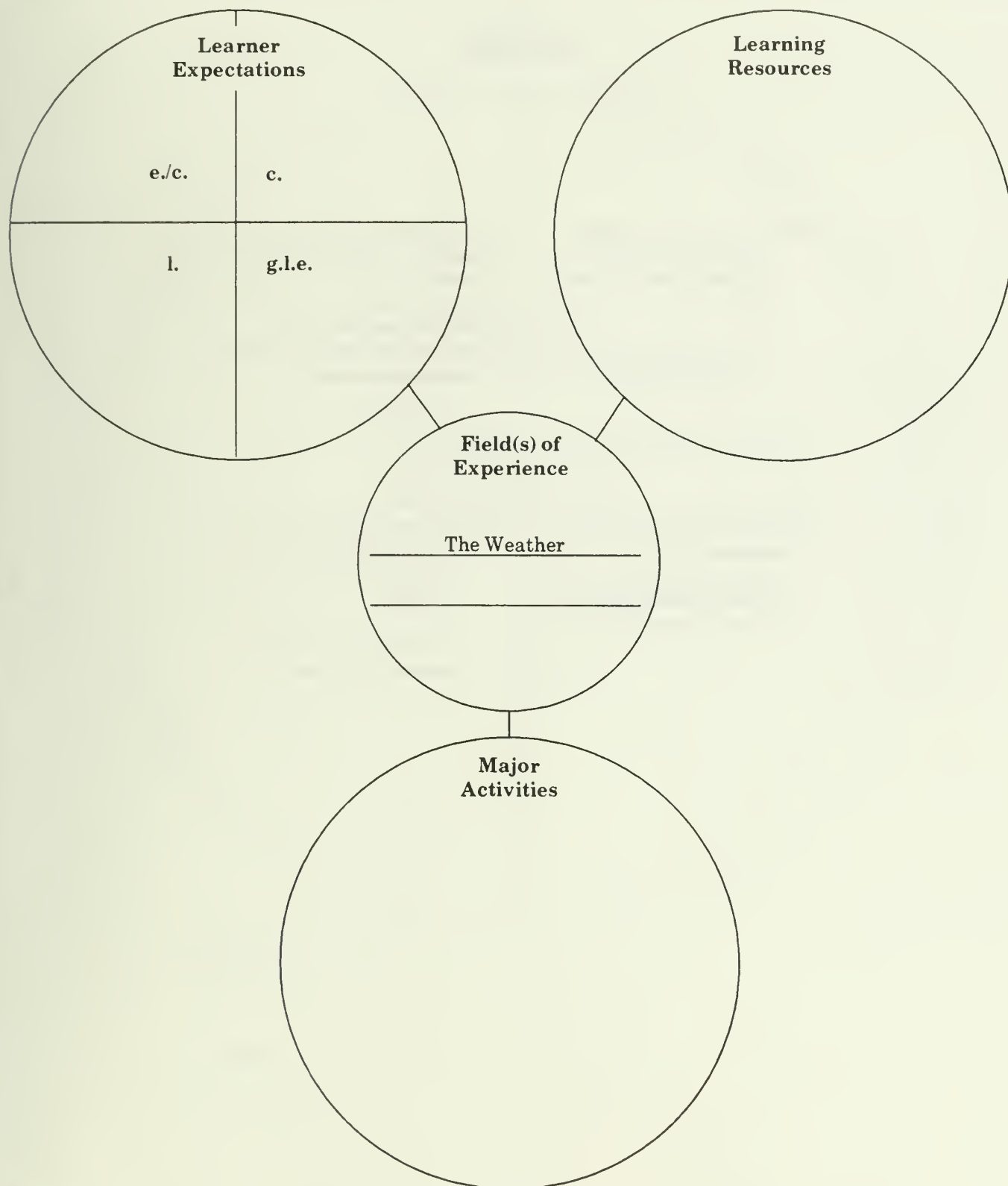
FIELD OF EXPERIENCE: The Weather

EDUCATIONAL PROJECT: Presentation of a weather report in two
different media

ALLOTTED TIME: 7 lessons at 40 minutes per lesson

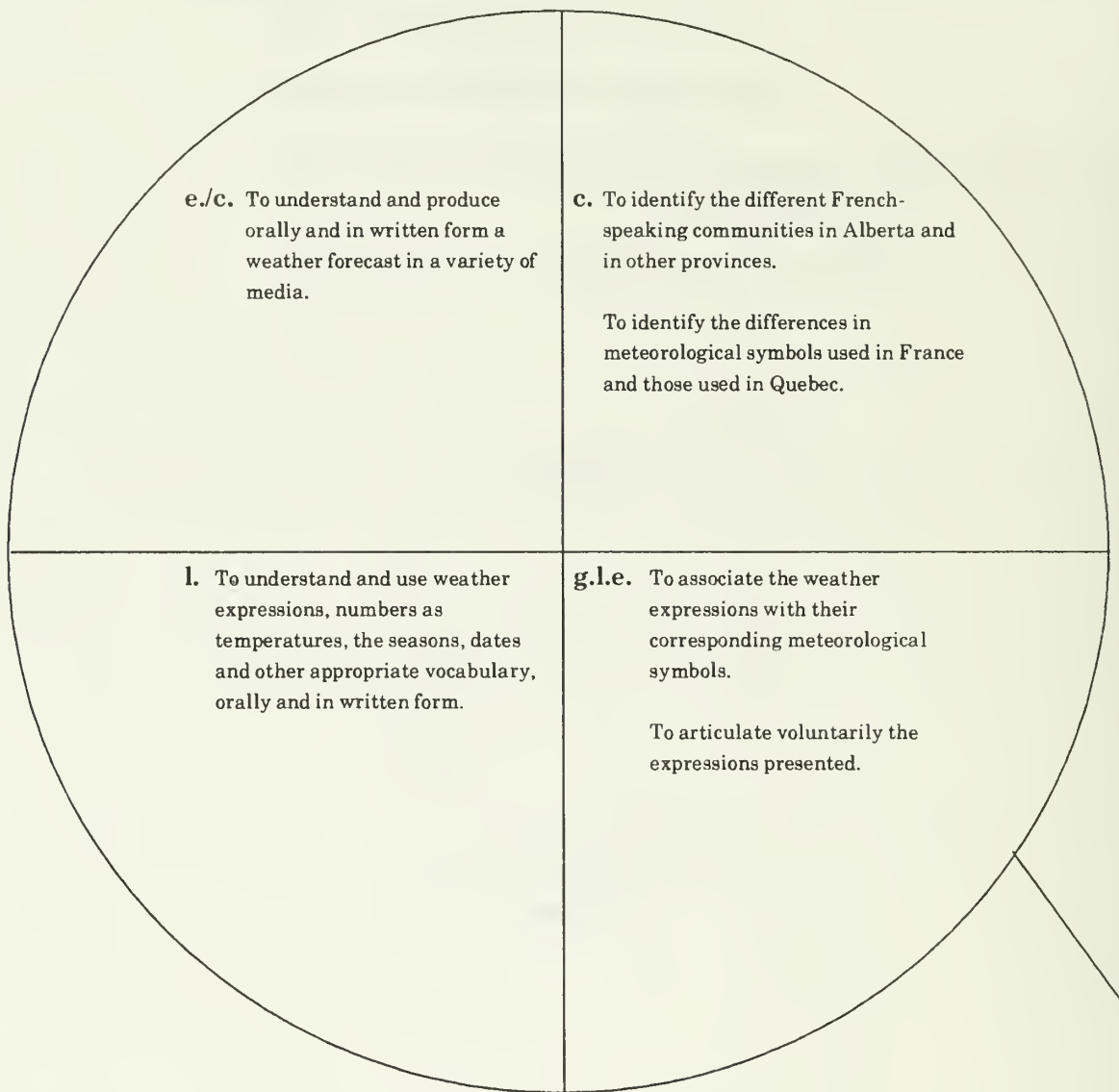
This project may be done separately or within a larger project.

Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Report in Two Different Media



Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Report in Two Different Media (cont'd)

**Learner
Expectations**



Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Report in Two Different Media (cont'd)

**Learning
Resources**

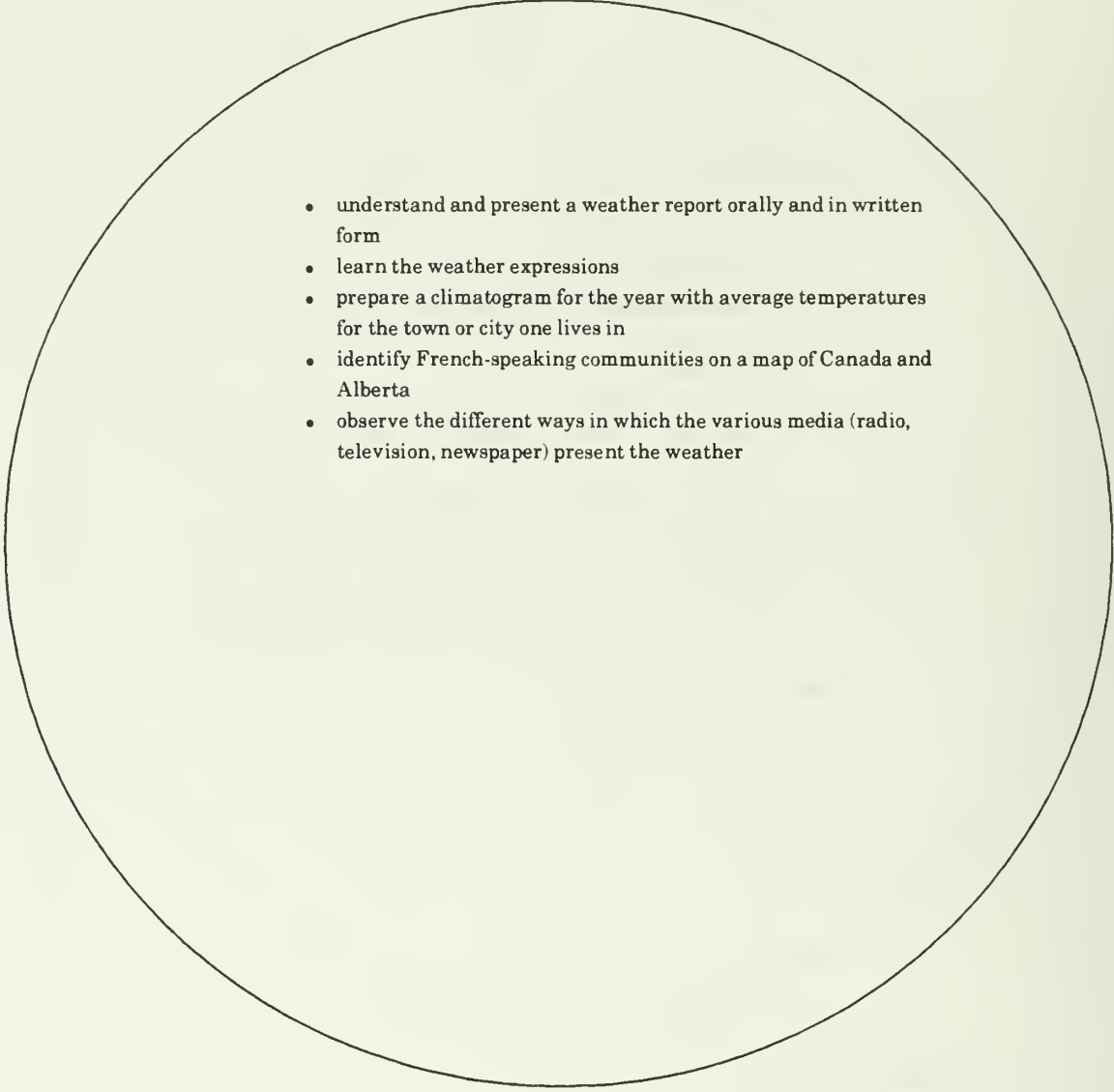
- Ici la France – Component 4
- blank maps of Canada and Alberta
- televised broadcast of a weather report by Radio-Canada
- radio broadcast of a weather report by Radio-Canada
- climatogram
- À la radio – Unité 3
- flash cards for weather expressions, the seasons, months and activities
- newspapers from Quebec and France

**Field(s) of
Experience**

The Weather

Educational Project: Presentation of a Weather Report in Two Different Media (cont'd)

**Major
Activities**

- 
- understand and present a weather report orally and in written form
 - learn the weather expressions
 - prepare a climatogram for the year with average temperatures for the town or city one lives in
 - identify French-speaking communities on a map of Canada and Alberta
 - observe the different ways in which the various media (radio, television, newspaper) present the weather

Activity No.: 1

DESCRIPTION: Learning of the weather expressions orally and in written form.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand the weather expressions orally and in written form.

c. To identify the differences between French and Quebec weather symbols.

l. To understand and use, orally and in written form, the weather expressions, numbers as temperatures, the seasons and dates.

g.l.e. To associate the weather expressions with their appropriate meteorological symbol.

RESOURCE(S): weather expression flash cards

À la Radio kit

Ici la France

weather symbol transparencies

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P	R.C.	W.E.
1. present the weather expressions			X		X			
2. play a memory game with the weather expressions			X	X	X			
3. review the numbers using mathematical problems	X		X		X	X		
4. give the appropriate weather expression based on the meteorological symbol/illustration, the season or the temperature			X	X		X		
5. develop a meteorological dictionary with the appropriate meteorological symbols used in France and Quebec		X	X	X			X	X

Activity No.: 2

DESCRIPTION: Preparation of a climatogram for the year with the average temperatures for one's hometown and for Quebec City.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand and predict temperatures for each month.
 c. To predict the temperatures for Quebec City and verify them.
 l. To understand and use the months of the year and temperatures.
 g.l.e. To associate average temperatures with the different months of the year.

RESOURCE(S): worksheet (climatogram)

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C	O.P.	R.C.	W.E.
1. present the months of the year using the celebrations known for those months			X		X			
2. ask questions using the months			X	X	X	X		
3. predict the average temperatures for one's hometown	X			X	X	X		
4. fill in the climatogram based on the students' predictions	X			X			X	X
5. predict the average temperatures for Quebec City and verify the predictions	X	X		X	X	X		
6. survey the predictions	X			X	X	X		
7. fill in a climatogram based on the verification	X			X			X	X
8. write a description of Quebec City's weather		X	X	X				X
9. play "Tic-Tac-Toe" using student generated questions	X		X	X	X	X	X	X

Activity No.: 3

DESCRIPTION: Identification of French-speaking communities in Alberta and other provinces.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand where French-speaking communities are situated in Alberta and in Canada.

c. To identify these communities on maps of Alberta and Canada.

l. To pronounce these names properly and to write them down on a blank map.

g.l.e. To be able to point them out on a map of Canada.

RESOURCE(S): maps of Alberta and Canada

blank maps of Alberta and Canada

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P.	R.C.	W.E.
1. point out the French-speaking communities on a map of Alberta	X	X			X	X		
2. label the French-speaking communities of Alberta on a blank map		X		X			X	X
3. point out the French-speaking communities on a map of Canada	X	X			X	X		
4. label a map of Canada with its provinces, corresponding capitals and some French-speaking communities in each province		X		X			X	X

Activity No.: 4

DESCRIPTION: Understanding and production of a weather forecast orally and in written form.

OBJECTIVES: e./c. To understand and produce a weather bulletin orally and in written form, based on the season.

c. To identify French-speaking communities throughout Canada.

l. To correctly use three weather expressions with their appropriate temperatures, based on the date chosen.

g.l.e. To associate the weather expressions with their appropriate meteorological symbols.

RESOURCE(S): televised weather broadcast from Radio-Canada

radio broadcast from Radio-Canada

Quebec newspaper

worksheets

Mini-tasks	Components				Skills			
	e./c.	c.	l.	g.l.e.	A.C.	O.P.	R.C.	W.E.
1. listen to a televised weather forecast from Radio-Canada and determine the weather	X				X	X		
2. point out the elements of an authentic televised weather forecast	X			X	X	X		
3. listen to a radio weather forecast and determine the weather	X				X	X		
4. point out the elements of an authentic radio weather forecast	X			X	X	X		
5. look at a Quebec newspaper and determine the weather	X			X		X	X	
6. point out the elements of an authentic weather forecast from the newspaper	X			X		X	X	
7. fill in a worksheet with the elements used in a weather forecast in each medium discussed	X			X		X	X	
8. prepare an oral weather report (choice: radio or television)	X	X	X	X	X	X		
9. present a weather report	X	X	X	X	X	X		
10. prepare a written weather report (for the newspaper) for a Canadian province, identifying French-speaking communities in that province	X	X	X	X			X	X

Lesson No.: 1

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 1

RESOURCE(S): activity flash cards

flash cards for the seasons

weather expression flash cards

worksheets

À la Radio – Unité – Activities F, A

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	Problem solving: the teacher shows an activity flash card and asks the students if it is possible or not to carry out the activity based on the weather flash card shown E.g.: Activity – skiing – flash card of the weather - L'été quand il fait du soleil. - L'automne quand il pleut. - L'hiver quand il neige. - etc.	reply "oui/non"	6 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	presents weather expressions for the memory game	match the illustrations to the weather expressions presented orally	5 mins.
	gives the students a worksheet and presents the weather expressions	match the expressions by numbering the responses with a picture	3 mins.
	gives weather problems for students to determine the appropriate temperature	provide the answer in a competition for one point	5 mins.
	gives worksheet Activity F (À la Radio)	write down the temperatures	6 mins.
	gives worksheet Activity A (À la Radio)	listen and circle the correct response, then provide the weather expression that matches the picture	6 mins.
Closure	writes on the board the weather expressions with the appropriate temperatures which correspond to the meteorological symbols	copy down the weather expressions and meteorological symbols to develop their own dictionary	6 mins.
	asks questions like: "Est-ce qu'il est possible de faire du ski quand il fait chaud?"	answer the questions	3 mins.

Lesson No.: 2

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 1 and No. 2

RESOURCE(S): worksheet for the lesson introduction

À la Radio – Activity E

seasons and months flash cards

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- plays the video "Ici la France" without sound - asks questions, stopping after each image to ask questions such as: "Est-ce qu'il fait beau?" - replays video	watch the video without sound	3 mins.
		check off on worksheet either "oui/non"	4 mins.
		listen to verify their answers	5 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- gives situations such as: "S'il fait __ °C, quel temps fait-il?" to review vocabulary - gives out worksheet Activity E (À la Radio) - presents the months of the year using the most known celebrations, then asks questions such as: "Noël, c'est en mai?" - presents a memory game ("Tic-Tac-Toe")*	answer the questions with the teacher's help	4 mins.
		listen and number the responses that correspond to the communication given	4 mins.
		listen; answer "oui/non"	3 mins.
		in two teams, choose a number and give the correct answer for an "X" or an "O"	6 mins.
		write down questions on recipe cards for next class	6 mins.
Closure	- gives situations such as: "Il pleut aujourd'hui. Qu'est-ce que nous pouvons faire?" a) jouer au tennis b) avoir un pique-nique c) regarder la télévision	choose orally either a, b or c	5 mins.

*See page 66 of the *Teacher Resource Manual* for an explanation of the game.

Lesson No.: 3

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 2

RESOURCE(S): climatogram worksheet*

overhead transparencies for Edmonton and Calgary climatogram*

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	reviews the months of the year using the most known celebrations by asking questions such as: "En quel mois est Noël?"	answer with correct month	3 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- shows the climatogram of Calgary or Edmonton saying: "Voici un climatogramme de _____. La température moyenne pour le mois de janvier est ____°C. Quelle est la température moyenne pour le mois de février?" - asks the question: "Ici, quelle serait la température moyenne pour le mois de janvier?" - asks questions like: "Quelle serait la température moyenne pour le mois de janvier dans la ville de Québec?", etc. and puts the first answer on the blackboard; then asks: "Qui est d'accord/pas d'accord?", etc. - puts the true temperatures on the board - gives the students a blank climatogram to fill in for Quebec City - instructs students to write a brief description of the average temperatures for the four seasons using set phrases from the blackboard - instructs students to have their peers edit their descriptions - divides students into teams	- look at the transparency and answer the questions - give their predictions and fill in a climatogram for their town or city - answer the questions - a student can count the hands and put the results on the board - verify their predictions - fill in the worksheet - write a rough draft - edit a peer's description; after editing and recopying, students hand in their description to the teacher - play "Tic-Tac-Toe" using their questions	3 mins. 5 mins. 8 mins. 2 mins. 4 mins. 4 mins. 4 mins. 5 mins.
Closure	using the climatogram, asks questions such as: "En quel mois, est-ce qu'il fait froid?; chaud?; frais?, etc., dans la ville de Québec?"	answer the questions	2 mins.

*Found in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 4

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 3

RESOURCE(S): maps of Alberta and Canada
blank maps of Alberta and Canada*

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	asks students to anticipate what they think they will hear in a radio weather broadcast	give responses	2 mins.
	plays a Radio-Canada broadcast	listen and verify responses	2 mins.
	plays report again and instructs students to listen for the report on Calgary, for example	give orally details of city chosen by teacher	1 min.
	asks students to provide elements of a weather broadcast and writes on blackboard	copy	4 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	provides the students with a map of Canada that has the weather symbols placed on it from a newspaper, asking them to determine what they know	answer	3 mins.
	shows a map of Alberta indicating where the class lives; then, asks students to name the cities of Alberta	name main cities of Alberta	3 mins.
	asks the question: "Quelles sont les communautés francophones en Alberta?"	answer the question	3 mins.
	provides students with blank maps to write the cities down	write down the names of the cities and French-speaking communities	5 mins.
	shows a map of Canada, providing the names of the provinces and asking students to name the capitals	listen and answer	5 mins.
	provides students with a blank map of Canada and writes the names of provinces/capitals; then identifies the French-speaking communities in each province	copy information down	5 mins.
	using the map to play a memory game, asks questions such as: "Dans quelle province se trouve(nt)....?; La capitale s'appelle Victoria. C'est quelle province?"	answer for a team point	5 mins.
Closure	asks questions such as: "Demain, quelle sera la température à Montréal?"	answer the questions	2 mins.

*Available for photocopying in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 5

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): televised weather forecast from Radio-Canada
radio weather forecast
Quebec newspaper weather forecast

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	asks the question: "Pour un bulletin de météo à la radio, quelle information donne-t-il?"	answer the question	1 min.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	presents the two other media in which one finds weather forecasts	listen	3 mins.
	plays the televised weather forecast from Radio-Canada; then asks students to determine what they understood	watch and give answers	4 mins.
	replays the forecast again asking students to identify the elements of a televised weather forecast; prepares list on board	name the elements	3 mins.
	repeats process with the newspaper forecast	name the elements	10 mins.
	gives students a worksheet to fill in	fill in worksheet with the information from the blackboard	4 mins.
	gives the instructions for the preparation of an oral weather report	- listen to the instructions - prepare their weather reports for television or radio - practise them with a partner	2 mins. 8 mins. 3 mins.
Closure	asks the questions: "Quels sont les trois médias où on trouve un bulletin de météo?; Quels sont les éléments d'un bulletin de météo à ...?"	answer orally	2 mins.

Lesson No.: 6

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): À la Radio – Unité 3 – Activity H

self-evaluation sheet*

aural comprehension evaluation sheet**

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	- gives the worksheet – Activity H - marks with class	fill out worksheet	4 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	- gives students time to practise oral weather report - hands out self-evaluation sheet - asks for weather presentations (1/2 class) - asks students for elements of a written weather report - with class writes a report on the board - gives instructions for a written report	- practise with a partner - fill out - present - give elements orally - copy the weather report - begin preparing weather report	3 mins. 2 mins. 20 mins. 2 mins. 3 mins. 5 mins.
Closure	asks for feedback	give feedback on project	1 min.

*Found in the Student Evaluation Guide.

**Found in Appendix A.

Lesson No.: 7

DATE: _____

MAJOR ACTIVITY SHEET: No. 4

RESOURCE(S): aural comprehension evaluation sheet*
objectivation grid**

	Teacher	Students	Time Allotted
Introduction	asks students to provide elements for a written weather report and puts them on the blackboard	give elements orally	2 mins.
Activities/ Mini-tasks	asks students to peer edit written weather reports using elements as a guide	- edit peer's report - hand in reports for marking after they have been recopied	8 mins.
	asks remainder of students to present their weather reports	present weather reports	20 mins.
	leads memory game of association for weather symbols by dividing students into teams and asking questions	time other teams and record on blackboard the amount of time it takes a team to answer	5 mins.
Closure	- hands out objectivation grid - discusses objectivation grid - tells students about weather quiz for next class (see Appendix A of Student Evaluation Guide for an example of this type of test)	- fill out grid - discuss orally	5 mins.

*Found in Appendix A.

**Found in the Student Evaluation Guide.

Appendix E: Directory of Suggested Sources for Authentic Documents

Associations

Association canadienne-française de l'Alberta

Secrétariat provincial
200, 8923 - 82 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
T6C 0Z2

(Please note: Branches of the A.C.F.A. are found throughout Alberta. An affiliation of this parent association of particular interest to students is Francophonie-Jeunesse, with which contact can be made at the address above.)

Fédération des communautés francophones et acadiennes du Canada

1, rue Nicholas
Bureau 1404
Ottawa, Ontario
M6P 1Y4
(Formerly Fédération des francophones hors Québec)
Tél.: (613) 563-0311

(Please note: Provincial/Territorial affiliates of the F.C.F.A.C. are found throughout Canada.)

Canadian Parents for French

309 Cooper Street
Suite 400B
Ottawa, Ontario
K2P 0G5

Films and Videos

ACCESS NETWORK

Media Resource Centre
295 Midpark Way, S.E.
Calgary, Alberta
T2X 2A8

Direction de l'information

Bureau du Commissaire aux Langues Officielles
66, rue Sater
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T8

National Film Board/Office National du Film

C. P. 6100
Station A
Montréal, Québec
H3C 3H5

Magazines and Reviews

L'Actualité

Éditions Maclean-Hunter Canada
1001, boul. de Maisonneuve Ouest
Bureau 1100
Montréal, Québec
H3A 3E1

Châtelaine

Éditions MacLean-Hunter Canada
1001, boul. de Maisonneuve Ouest
Bureau 1100
Montréal, Québec
H3A 3E1

Elle

Canebsco Subscription Services Ltd.
70 McGriskin Road
Scarborough, Ontario
M1S 4S5

Hibou

Les Éditions Héritage, Inc.
300, avenue Arran
Saint-Lambert, Québec
J1R 1K5

Vidéo-Press

Éditions Pauline
3965, boul. Henri-Bourassa Est
Montréal, Québec
H1H 1L1

Music

To obtain information on popular French language singers and recent albums, write or call:

Radio activités
3981, boul. Saint-Laurent
Bureau 715
Montréal, Québec
H2W 1Y5

(Please note: Subscription to the magazine is necessary in order to receive information.)

Newspapers

Le Devoir
211, rue du Saint-Sacrement
Montréal, Québec
H2Y 1X1

Le Franco
8923 - 82 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
T6C 0Z2

Le Monde
15, rue Falgnière
75501, Paris
France

La Presse
7, rue Saint-Jacques
Montréal, Québec
H2Y 1K9

Le Soleil
390, rue Saint-Valliers
C. P. 1547
Québec, Québec
G1K 7J6

Posters and Brochures

Bell Canada

Public Affairs Department
1050, Beaver Hill, Room 610
Montréal, Québec
H2Z 1S4

Bureau du Québec

Highfield Place Building
10010 - 106 Street, 10th Floor
Edmonton, Alberta
T5J 3L8

Centre Franco-Ontarien de Ressources Pédagogiques

339, rue Wilbrod
Ottawa, Ontario
K1N 6M4

Department of Secretary of State

Communications Branch
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0M5

Éditions Soleil Publishing Inc.

P. O. Box 847
Welland, Ontario
L3B 5Y5

French Government Tourist Office

1981 McGill College
Suite 490
Montréal, Québec
H3A 2E9

Participaction

1565 Carling Avenue
Suite 400
Ottawa, Ontario
K1Z 8K1

Société Radio-Canada

Relations écrites avec l'auditoire
21^e étage
C. P. 6000, Succ. A
Montréal, Québec
H3C 3A4

Appendix F: List of Approved Basic Resources

This section provides teachers with information regarding the basic learning resources which have been approved to fulfill the learning expectations of the program of studies. They are divided according to language level, i.e., **Beginning**, **Intermediate** or **Advanced** and the entry point in which they would be used in the program. In addition, the fields of experience are listed according to which student text they can be found in and the extent to which they are explored in the textbook. The terms being used to describe this exploration or treatment are: **Superficial** – meaning a limited number of linguistic aspects are presented, presentation of the field is not extensive and communicative activities are few in number; **Sufficient** – meaning a good range of linguistic aspects is presented, presentation of the field is substantial enough to give students a wide range of language experiences and the communicative activities allow for sufficient recycling and reinvestment of students' linguistic, cultural and strategic knowledge; and **Comprehensive** – meaning an extensive range of linguistic aspects is presented, presentation of the field is well developed and in-depth so as to provide students with flexibility in their language use and a wide variety of communicative activities promote creative use of students' linguistic, cultural and strategic knowledge, in addition to allowing for recycling and reinvestment of this knowledge.

Only the **Beginning** level resources are available at the time of printing. As each level is approved, basic resources for the **Intermediate** and **Advanced** levels will be added to this section.

Teachers are encouraged to refer to the document entitled *French as a Second Language Annotated Bibliography of Learning Resources. Early Childhood Services – Grade 12* for supplementary learning resources which can be used to enhance learning activities.

BEGINNING LEVEL

ECS – Grade 3 (Ages 5-8)

Dimoitou 1, 2, 3 (Centre Éducatif et Culturel, inc.)

Grades 4 – 6 (Ages 9-12)

Aventures 1, 2, 3 (Copp Clark)

Bienvenue 1, 2, 3 (Prentice Hall)

Grades 7 – 9 (Ages 13-15)

Arc-en-ciel 1 and 2 (Mary Glasgow)

Grades 10 – 12 (Ages 15-17)

French 13

Arc-en-ciel 1 (Mary Glasgow)

French 10

Arc-en-ciel 2 (Mary Glasgow)

Entrez 1 (Copp Clark)

ECS – GRADE 3

DIMOITOU

Author: Courtel, Claudine; McKinley, Murielle; Amyot, Denise; Comeau, Marthe
Publisher: Centre Éducatif et Culturel, inc.
ISBN: 2-7617-0534-3
Publication Date: 1988
Age Level: 5-8
Components Available: Student Text, Student Workbook, Teacher's Manual, Flash Cards, Audiocassettes, Blackline Masters, Puppets, Game Cards
Distribution Site: Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book			Treatment
		One	Two	Three	
B1	School	✓	✓		Comprehensive
	People Around Us	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Weather	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Animals	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Holidays and Celebrations	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
B2	Community		✓	✓	Sufficient
	Clothing	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Exercise	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Food	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Housing	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
B3	Activities	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Vacations	✓	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Fine Arts		✓		Superficial
	Trades and Professions		✓		Comprehensive
	Hygiene and Safety		✓	✓	Comprehensive

GRADES 4 – 6

AVENTURES

Author: Clarke, Anne Burrows; Leder, Gail S.; Rautins, Rauda M.

Publisher: Copp-Clark Pitman, Ltd.

ISBN: 0-7730-1692-9

Publication Date: 1987

Age Level: 9-12

Components Available: Student Text, Student Workbook, Teacher's Manual, Flash Cards, Activity Cards, Audiocassettes, Blackline Masters, Puppets

Distribution Site: Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book			Treatment
		One	Two	Three	
B1	School	✓	✓		Sufficient
	People Around Us	✓	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Weather	✓	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Animals	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Holidays and Celebrations	✓			Superficial
B2	Community		✓		Comprehensive
	Clothing	✓	✓		Comprehensive
	Exercise		✓	✓	Sufficient
	Food	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Housing		✓		Sufficient
B3	Activities		✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Vacations			✓	Sufficient
	Fine Arts		✓	✓	Sufficient
	Trades and Professions		✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Hygiene and Safety			✓	Comprehensive

GRADES 4 – 6

BIENVENUE (1 – Clic!, 2 – On démarre!, 3 – C'est parti!)

Author: Nemni, Monique; Lecerf, Bernard; Merrick, Scott; Preston, Paula
Publisher: Prentice-Hall
ISBN: 0-13-081175-0
Publication Date: 1988-1990
Age Level: 9-12
Components Available: Student Text, Student Workbook, Teacher's Manual, Flash Cards, Large Books, Audiocassettes, Blackline Masters, Games
Distribution Site: Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book			Treatment
		One	Two	Three	
B1	School	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	People Around Us	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Weather		✓		Sufficient
	Animals	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Holidays and Celebrations	✓	✓	✓	Sufficient
B2	Community		✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Clothing	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Exercise	✓			Superficial
	Food	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Housing	✓	✓	✓	Sufficient
B3	Activities	✓	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Vacations	✓		✓	Sufficient
	Fine Arts	✓	✓	✓	Superficial
	Trades and Professions			✓	Sufficient
	Hygiene and Safety	✓	✓		Superficial

GRADES 7 – 9 AND FRENCH 13 (BEGINNING 1/2)

ARC-EN-CIEL 1

Author: Miller, Ann; Roselman, Liz
Publisher: Mary Glasgow Publications
ISBN: 1-85234-175-0
Publication Date: 1988
Age Level: 7-16
Components Available: Student Text, Teacher's Manual, Flash Cards, Audiocassettes, Videocassette, Blackline Masters
Distribution Site: Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book		Treatment
		One	Two	
B1	School	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	People Around Us	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Weather	✓		Superficial
	Animals	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Holidays and Celebrations	✓		Superficial
B2	Community	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Clothing	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Exercise	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Food	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Housing	✓	✓	Comprehensive
B3	Activities	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Vacations	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Fine Arts		✓	Superficial
	Trades and Professions	✓		Sufficient
	Hygiene and Safety	✓	✓	Comprehensive

FRENCH 10 (BEGINNING 2/3)

ARC-EN-CIEL 2

Author: Miller, Ann; Roselman, Liz
Publisher: Mary Glasgow Publications
ISBN: 1-85234-175-0
Publication Date: 1988
Age Level: 7-16
Components Available: Student Text, Teacher's Manual, Flash Cards, Audiocassettes, Videocassette, Blackline Masters
Distribution Site: Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book		Treatment
		One	Two	
B1	School	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	People Around Us	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Weather	✓		Superficial
	Animals	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Holidays and Celebrations	✓		Superficial
B2	Community	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Clothing	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Exercise	✓	✓	Sufficient
	Food	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Housing	✓	✓	Comprehensive
B3	Activities	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Vacations	✓	✓	Comprehensive
	Fine Arts		✓	Superficial
	Trades and Professions	✓		Sufficient
	Hygiene and Safety	✓	✓	Comprehensive

FRENCH 10 (BEGINNING 2/3)

ENTREZ

Author:	Miles, Barbara; Peruzzo, Elver
Publisher:	Copp-Clark Pitman, Ltd.
ISBN:	0-7730-4563-5
Publication Date:	1987 Book One, 1989 Book Two
Age Level:	15-17
Components Available:	Student Text, Student Workbook, Teacher's Manual, Audiocassettes, Blackline Masters
Distribution Site:	Learning Resources Distributing Centre

	Fields of Experience	Student Book		Treatment
		One	Two	
B1	School People Around Us Weather Animals Holidays and Celebrations	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	 ✓	Sufficient Comprehensive Superficial Not treated Sufficient
B2	Community Clothing Exercise Food Housing	 ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	✓ ✓ ✓	Comprehensive Sufficient Comprehensive Sufficient Sufficient
B3	Activities Vacations Fine Arts Trades and Professions Hygiene and Safety	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓	Comprehensive Comprehensive Comprehensive Comprehensive Comprehensive

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FRENCH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHER RESOURCE MANUAL EARLY
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